DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 338 073 FL 019 781

TITLE	Dialog on Language Instruction, Volume 4, Numbers 1 and 2, 1987.
INSTITUTION	Defense Language Inst., Monterey, Calif.
PUB DATE	87
NOTE	188p.
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - Serials (022)
JOURNAL CIT	Dialog on Language Instruction; v4 n1-2 Jan,Dec 1987
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC08 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Class Activities; Classroom Environment; Classroom Techniques; *Communicative Competence (Languages); Competition; Cultural Awareness; Educational Change; Educational Objectives; Educational Strategies; Educational Technology; Elementary Secondary Education; Games; Grammar; Instructional Materials; *Language Research; Nonverbal Communication; Reading Instruction; *Second Language Instruction; Sociocultural Patterns
IDENTIFIERS	*Defense Language Institute CA; *Fossilized Language; Trivial Pursuit

ABSTRACT

This document consists of the two issues of "Dialog on Language Instruction" (DLI) published during 1987. The following articles appear in these issues of this "occasional" internal publication: "Foreign Language Technology in the 21st Century" (Frank Otto); "Cultural Distance and the Foreign Language Teaching/Learning Process" (Mehmet A. Cicekdag); "Communicating with More Than Words" (Yildiray Erdener); "Goals and Objectives in Foreign Language Teaching" (Lidia Woytak); "Research at DLI" (John Lett); "Social Conventions in the Foreign Language Classroom" (Foazi Y. El-Barouki and others); "Avoiding Fossilization in Communicative Approaches" (Tracy David Terrell); "Teaching Reading in the Foreign Language Classroom" (Heidi Byrnes); an interview with Robert M. Gagne (Lidia Woytak); "Teaching without Texts" (Rene de Barros); and "Trivial Pursuit as a Language-Learning Game" (William M. Bueler). Conference summaries, program reports and announcements, book reviews, and professional notes are also included. (MSE)

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Dialog on Language Instruction

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January 1987 Vol. 4, No. 1

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Dialog on Language Instruction

Volume 4, Number 1 January 1987

CONTENTS

EDITORIAL
Joseph C. Hutchinson iii

ARTICLES

Foreign Language Technology in the 21st Century
Frank Otto 1

Cultural Distance and the Foreign Language Teaching/Learning Process
Mehmet A. Cicekdag 15

Communicating with More Than Words
Yildiray Erdener 31

Goals and Objectives in Foreign Language Teaching
Lidia Woytak 36

FACULTY EXCHANGE

Research at DLI
John Lett 46

Social Conventions in the Foreign Language Classroom (ACTFL Conference Presentation)
Foazi Y. El-Barouki, Marianne Armstrong, Motoko Tabuse, and Alice K. Lee 55

Real-Life in the Classroom (ACTFL Workshop Report)
Steven Koppany 71

Faculty Seminar at DLI 73

Language Olympics (207th MI Brigade) 75

DIGEST

Comprehension and Production in Interactive Language Teaching, From *The Modern Language Journal*
Wilga M. Rivers 78

The Problem with Grammar: What Kind Can the Language Learner Use? From *The Modern Language Journal* 79
Nina Garrett

REVIEWS

Germany: 2000 Years, Volume 3, *From the Nazi Era to the Present*
Gerhart Hoffmeister and Frederic C. Tubach
Reviewed by Wolfgang M. L. Maier 82

Bulletins--Premier Niveau: Sight Readings in French
Sidney Pellisier and William Flint Smith
Reviewed by Réjane G. Moreno 83

NEWS AND VIEWS

Letter from Congressman Panetta 88

To Strengthen the Nation's Investment in Foreign Languages and International Studies 89

Bilingualism: The Accent is on Youth 90

The 1986 CALICO Symposium 92

Computer-Controlled Interactive Videodisc System 93

Forthcoming Meetings 94

CONTRIBUTORS 95

INFORMATION FOR CONTRIBUTORS

EDITORIAL

Any new project, especially a publication, needs an explanation and certainly some justification as its *raison d'être*. The first issue of *Dialog on Language Instruction* is no exception. In a sense, this is not a *new* publication but rather a phoenix-like "reincarnation" of earlier manifestations of professionalism in the history of the Defense Language Institute and its predecessors.

The history of DLI is filled with periods of ebb and flow in academic and pseudo-academic activities. This multi-faceted organization has always had a somewhat schizophrenic academic image ranging from that of a "trade-school" on the training side to that of a university (or at least a "post secondary educational institution") on the education side. As in any renaissance period, academic creativity at DLI seems to flourish more openly, in my opinion, whenever three major variables coincide to provide an appropriately fertile environment. These are: 1)command emphasis which provides encouragement for and recognition of genuine academic achievement; 2) an overall resource environment which is not so restrained as to inhibit professional growth by labeling it as "non-essential"; and 3) a broad recognition of a genuine need for foreign language as a priority component of national security.

If one takes professional publications and faculty seminars as two major indicators of professional activity at the "grass-roots" level (without counting the more operationally oriented activities related to research and curriculum development or the special interagency or international conferences), the peak periods of faculty productivity I have been able to identify are:

1960-1962. Several issues of the *US Army Language School Review* appeared and at least one open faculty seminar was held.
1969-1971; 1972-1973. A Commandant's Seminar was held annually and resulted in published proceedings.
1969-1974. A semi-formal *Dean's Newsletter* was published from one to four times annually with a variety of professional articles and reviews.
1975-1986. Sporadic faculty seminars were held under the auspices of the Academic Senate and Academic Advisory Council during this period.

1971-1982. The *FORUM* was published several times annually as both a teaching bulletin with a wide variety of professional articles and an information newsletter with a variety of feature articles and photographs.
1978-present. A quarterly master lecture series has been presented under a contract with the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. Most of these have been published and distributed.
1982-1985. *Foreign Language Learning Techniques and Strategies (FLLTS)* was published occasionally as part of the inservice faculty development program. Since its last issue was Volume 3, Number 2, we decided to carry this tradition forward so that this issue of *Dialog on Language Instruction* is designated as Volume 4, Number 1. So much for the recent history of publications and seminars.

It is refreshing to note that the current climate is especially favorable for creative productivity and professional growth. Not only is DLI's mission recognized as a high priority at all levels of the Department of Defense and the overall resource environment has improved considerably in recent years, but the most decisive factor currently is the command emphasis placed on professionalism and the priorities given to both professional development and growth by Colonel Monte R. Bullard, Commandant of DLI since September 1985. The appearance of this publication is but one of several manifestations of his strong encouragement to increase the academic capabilities of the DLI faculty and staff. A long list of such initiatives is found in the DLI Master Plan which meshes the vision of a fully professional academic institution with the realities of resource management by specifying resource requirements and deadlines for achieving the objective of each project and task. Despite increases in DLI resources during the past few years, the current resource picture faces two serious, yet counterposed, challenges: the government-wide efforts to cut back on all budget allocations in contrast with the continued increases in DLI student enrollment requirements. So far the Commandant has been successful in obtaining the support required to foster growth in both quantity and quality, including recent authorization to increase the size of the faculty. So we acknowledge the Commandant's leadership as the rationale for bringing about the appearance of this first issue of *Dialog on Language Instruction*.

As noted elsewhere, the purpose of this publication is to promote professional dialog among DLI faculty and staff, as well as to promote professional communication within the Defense Language Program. Hence, the title. Since this is a fresh start in that direction, we have been fortunate in having a number of manuscripts from both faculty and staff from which to select. The selection of articles was by no means arbitrary. Each submission, except for the lead guest article, was reviewed anonymously by at least two foreign language educators. We hope that increased contributions from the faculty and staff to future issues will enable us to maintain this level of quality. We also hope to include some contributions from students whose interests should also be represented in any full dialog about language instruction.

We are happy to start this issue with a guest article on the very pertinent subject of technology in language instruction. Then we have two articles by faculty members on the importance of cross-cultural communication in language instruction; one from a broad point of view, the other concerning a limited, yet dynamic, aspect of nonverbal communication. Finally, a staff member demonstrates the relationship between proficiency-oriented language instruction and the goals and objectives upon which any course should be based.

The purpose of the **Faculty Exchange** section is to encourage the sharing of ideas through less formal contributions. We start off with a brief overview of the status of research at DLI hoping to expand this into a separate section in the future. We then provide several faculty contributions based on four presentations at the annual meeting of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages plus a report on one of the workshops. Next is a summary of the presentations given at a recent faculty seminar presented under the auspices of the Academic Advisory Council. Finally, we have reported on an interesting event which provided a sports-like competition among fellow Army linguists from one of the units in Europe.

The **Digest** section is intended as a way of sharing key articles of professional interest through the technique of summarization so that the ideas could be more readily available. The **Review** section presents two well prepared reviews of books which should interest our readers.

The **News and Views** section is intended to bring a variety of short notices, reports or comments which are relevant to our readers. This time we have a special item on the broader implications of bilingualism, a report from our Congressman on relevant legislation, a report on a proposed National Language Foundation, a report on our new capabilities in interactive video, a report on CALICO and a selected list of forthcoming conferences. We welcome similar submissions from our readers in the future, including comments of how this type of professional communication may better achieve its purpose.

In addition to the boost that new educational technology is giving to the field of language instruction, we would like to note that technology played an important role in putting together this issue. The power and efficiency of our electronic word-processing system is almost staggering, especially when one compares the volume of text material and the myriad number of corrections and adjustments involved in editing to the equivalent difficulties one might have encountered with the use of type-writers in preparing camera - ready material. Also the choice of fonts and the print quality of the laser printer make us grateful for these extra bonuses. Finally, the recent arrival of an electronic scanner capable of converting a typed article of 15 to 20 pages into digitized form on a floppy disc in a matter of minutes has made some of the problems inherent in editing appear to be inconsequential - and almost a joy. So there were moments of enjoyment mixed with moments of frustration in playing midwife to this new venture.

Without hesitation, I would like to express my deep appreciation to a number of people who contributed to the launching of this publication. First, the members of the DLI board have been most helpful and supportive from beginning to end in a number of areas. Next, the members of the editorial advisory board gave us a great deal of important advice and encouragement that will continue to be useful for a long time to come. Lidia Woytak deserves a special accolade for sustained and intensive collaboration during all phases of development. Her mark is evident in several major contributions to this issue but not so evident in other areas where her work was still critical in getting the product out. The third member of our production team, Mrs. Virginia Wilson, deserves special appreciation for her dedication and patience in getting the myriad of words, and "bits" to line up

in proper order both on the visual display and later on the dot-matrix printer. Only she knows how many times some of the items have been produced and reproduced as we experimented in searching for the proper format. We owe many thanks also to John Dege, (ATFL-DIN-RPP) the DLI "czar" and "coach" of wordprocessing for academic purposes, for his ready support and willingness to continue in solving a large variety of production problems. We owe special thanks to Steve Selivanovsky, (ATFL-DIN-FS) for his creative artistry and his willingness to produce ten different cover designs before we came to a final decision.

We also wish to acknowledge the assistance given in editing by Major David Clark, USMCR; in the emergency relief provided in wordprocessing by Peter Schulz (ATFL-DES), by Kay Rodriquez (ATFL-DIN-CPB), and by Annie Frazier (ATFL-DGE-AC); in all aspects of layout and electronic graphics by Dennis Leatherman (ATFL-IMI-V); and finally, in printing and binding by Richard Miles (ATFL-IM-P) and his colleagues.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE TECHNOLOGY IN THE 21ST CENTURY*

Frank Otto,
Brigham Young University

INTRODUCTION

You have probably already witnessed considerable interest expressed recently in designing and implementing a variety of exemplary programs to teach first, second, and foreign languages with the assistance of computers.

There is no doubt that CAI/IL (Computer Assisted Instruction/Interactive Learning) can make significant contribution to teaching and learning more effectively by providing teachers, administrators, and students options that would not otherwise be available in their teaching/learning environment; indeed, the primary purpose of CAI/IL is to enrich and enhance that environment.

I shall focus my comments on offering an up-to-date information source vis-a-vis the status of technology in language teaching, to provide direction to the practitioner and teacher trainer who are faced with the application of software and hard-ware in their daily instruction, and to suggest direction for further research and implementation to the profession at large.

MAKING THE BEST USE OF CAI/IL

We must pay special attention to integrating CAI/IL programs in such a way that they are fully incorporated as integral features of the instruction program to be tailored to needs, interests, and learning styles of individual students. While the application of IL is certainly not a new goal among educators, interactive learning (IL) incorporates instructional specifications that are pedagogically sound while requiring active

*This is an abbreviated version of a paper presented as the keynot address at the June 1986 annual conference of the NATO affiliate, Bureau for International Language Coordination, for which DLI was the host.

student participation at every level of language acquisition. Branching and learner options are increased by the use of new technologies.

Language Achievement Applying the Notional Functional Approach Exemplary in CAI/IL Programs is characterized by:

-Students making more use of language provided them by expanding their learning options.

-Teachers going beyond the textbook to lead students to proficiency by offering a variety of learning options.

-Students being engaged in meaningful learning based on realistic topics, events and situations.

-Students being given opportunities to use language for real-world purposes, including language for special purposes and on-the-job training (OJT).

-Students being guided towards proficiency from the first day of the course in order to increase their proficiency as significantly as possible.

Much has been said and written about IL and the notional-functional approach. The following guidelines are useful when measuring the extent to which a CAI/IL program is pedagogically sound:

Priming. The purpose of priming is to give the student a chance to become comfortable and familiar with the sight, sound, and sense of new language before being required to produce it. Priming lays the affective and cognitive foundation upon which to build productive skills later.

Prompting. The purpose of prompting is to develop the student's ability to produce appropriate language when prompted.

Performing. The purpose of the performing stage is to provide sample opportunities for students to use language creatively to accomplish their own purposes in a way acceptable within the new target culture.

Students are expected to progress from priming to prompting to performing in order for a program to be truly interactive. the most important feature of model CAI/IL programs is the control that teachers and students have in the form of options provided by the special courseware.

GUIDELINES OF EFFECTIVE CAI/IL PROGRAMS

While there are many guidelines that may be listed for effective CAI/IL programs, the following are the most important:

Perceived Purpose. Learners learn best if they can see or develop for themselves a reason for learning the material being presented.

Appropriate Practice. Appropriate Practice means doing what the objective calls for. If our objective is that the learner will be able to obtain services in a restaurant (order food and pay for it), then the best possible way to achieve that objective is for the learner to practice in a role-playing situation through simulation.

Graduated Sequence. Graduated Sequence involves progressing from the easy to the difficult, from the familiar to the unfamiliar, from the simple to the complex, from the clearly stated to the implied. It is based on the assumption that success and increased confidence are very important factors in the learning process.

Knowledge of Results. While we learn by doing, we can learn to do things incorrectly by practicing them incorrectly. Knowledge of Results involves telling learners whether they are doing something correctly or incorrectly; and if they are doing it incorrectly, telling them as precisely and as timely as possible what they are doing wrong and how to correct it. This process allows students to avoid habituated errors.

Individual Differentiation. This principle is based on the assumption that not all learners are created equal. They have different entry skills, aptitudes and attitudes. Every effortshould be made to permit each learner to proceed at a pace that challenges yet permits success. There need be no correlation attempted between the number of attempts rate and the evaluation of student success. This approach allows the

correlation between aptitude and achievement to be reduced to zero.

Fail-Safe Protected Learning Environment. Students are not permitted to fail. The record-keeping function allows them to proceed as long as an acceptable level of mastery is maintained. We use 80 percent in BYU CALI [Computer Assisted Language Instruction] Research Projects.) Remediation, review, and additional examples/explanations are provided when students fall below the agreed upon level of mastery in order to bring them back on track so that their learning experience will be successful.

GENERAL RATIONALE FOR THE USE OF EXEMPLARY CAI/IL PROGRAMS IN TEACHING AND LEARNING LANGUAGES

1. CAI programs should be used to individualize and personalize student interaction in a manner not possible in normal classroom settings:

   -through student control of rate of presentation;

   -through availability of help features;

   -through individualized branching for remedial instruction;

   -through program ability to adjust the level of difficulty according to the student's needs;

   -through student ability to continue receiving instruction and practice until a level of mastery is attained;

   -through immediate correction of errors so that mistakes will not become habituated.

2. CAI programs can provide for language-learning experiences not otherwise available by utilizing simulations involving role play.

3. CAI programs with a record-keeping function provide both the student and teacher with on-going evaluation that would be difficult in most conventional classroom settings.

PECIFIC EXAMPLES OF APPLICATIONS OF CAI TO ARIOUS SKILL AREAS

Authentic material should be used to promote mmunicative competence through teaching techniques and arning activities that enhance:

Vocabulary Learning

-Games or word puzzles in which the teacher inputs the vocabulary and the program converts it into a game (i.e., *Crossword Magic* by Mindscape).

Grammar

-Exercises in word order where the meaning of the resulting sentence is demonstrated by animated graphics (i.e., *Make a Sentence* - - PLATO).

-Programs that build the display interactively as certain grammatical concepts are explained, thus drawing the student's attention to the pertinent part of the display.

-Exploratory CAI in which the student is free to ask questions of the computer and explore the target language and its structure (i.e., *Grammarland* by John Higgins).

Reading Comprehension

-Programs which incorporate repetition or highlighting of relevant parts of a passage in response to missed comprehension questions.

-Cloze exercises in which the teacher or student can control the number and placement of blanks.

-Programs to increase reading speed by the use of various scrolling techniques.

Writing

-Programs that take advantage of the computer's word processing capabilities, making it very easy for the student to edit

-Programs with on-demand, built-in bilingual dictionaries.

-Programs with the ability to highlight a certain word or phrase and have a translation provided.

5. Translation

-Programs with on-demand, built-in bilingual dictionaries.

-Ability to highlight a certain word or phrase and have a translation provided.

6. Auditory Discrimination (Audio peripheral required such a Kay Elemetric's *Visi-Pitch*)

-Programs which display phonemes on the screen along with aural presentation of minimal pairs and include more practice in the student's problem areas.

7. Listening Comprehension (Audio peripheral required such as a non-computer or computer-controlled audio cassette player [Tandberg], videotape, videodisc, or interactive television [ITV])

-Programs in which the student hears a passage in the foreign language is asked comprehension questions, and is given immediate feedback and remediation.

-Simulations of real-life situations in which the student is required to respond to directions, a request, etc., and is branched to a simulated result of that response (i.e., *Montevidisco* by Brigham Young University).

-Listening comprehension activities coupled with video making it possible to practice understanding non-verbal communication.

-Dictation activities where the feedback is detailed and immediate and the student can ask for clues to make corrections.

8. Culture

-Culture capsulès such as a program in which the student makes a choice of what to do in a certain situation and then receives an explanation of the probable consequences of that choice (i.e. *Correct Behavior the Mexican Way* by Langenscheidt).

-Audio/Video simulations which take the student through real-life situations (i.e., *Klavier im Haus* and *Montevidisco).*

9. Additional technologies

-Satellite telecasts via PEACESAT (i.e., TELEclass by John Wellstein and John Southworth).

PERSONNEL AND ORGANIZATIONS INVOLVED IN THE CAI/IL ENVIRONMENT

Ideally, our professional language organizations should cooperate with teacher education institutions and with hardware/software/courseware vendors to offer pre-service and in-service workshops involving the most feasible applications of CAI/IL programs to the teaching and learning of languages.

While most of the associations illustrated in Figure 2 are self-explanatory, there are some special observations and supporting comments that would be helpful.

1. Professional language organizations must interrelate with educational institutions and both should maintain an on-going dialog with hardware/software/courseware vendors and publishers so that all three can communicate as meaningfully as possible with teachers and administrators involved with CAI/IL programs.

CALICO (Computer Assisted Language Learning and Instruction Consortium) with its Journal, Database, annual Summer Institute, CAB (CALICO Audio Bookshelf) tape and study series, Monograph Series, and other special programs and activities, is the only professional organization that exists with the sole purpose of assisting its members in applying technology specifically to the teaching, learning, and processing of first, second, and foreign languages. For those who want to become

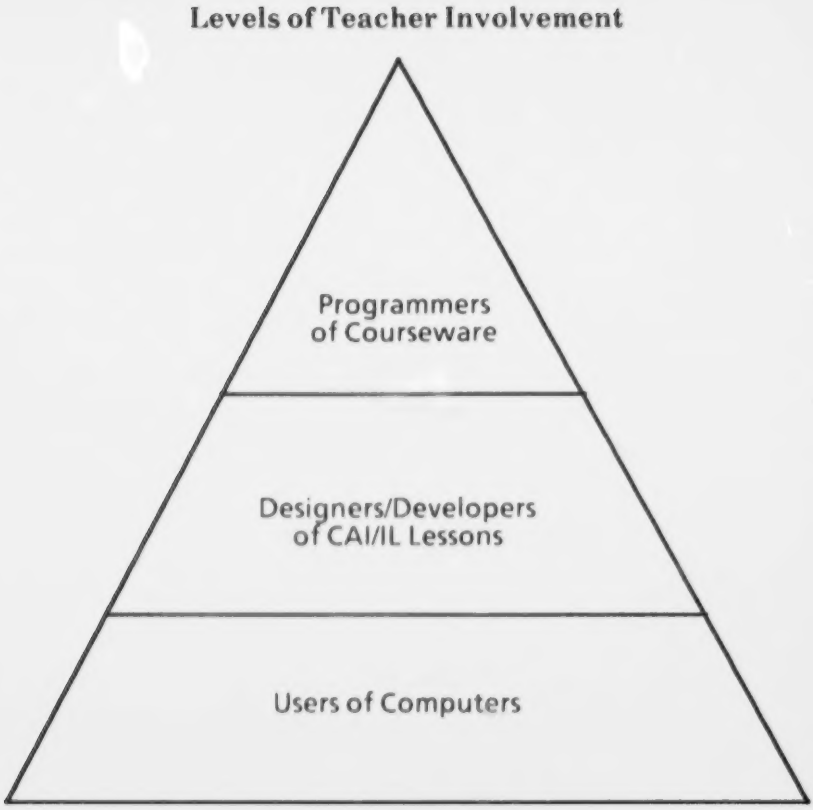

Figure 1

These levels of computer literacy and the extent to which teachers/administrators are involved indicate that workshops must be tailored to the needs of individuals grouped as illustrated above.

involved with CAI/IL by sharing information with others in this field, there is no better plan than to join CALICO and to encourage your institution to join as well.

2. Because the challenge to educational institutions is so immense in terms of becoming familiar with CAI/IL programs and CALI/CALL applications plus the need to become familiar with a rapidly expanding array of hardware/software/courseware possibilities, many educational institutions are forming

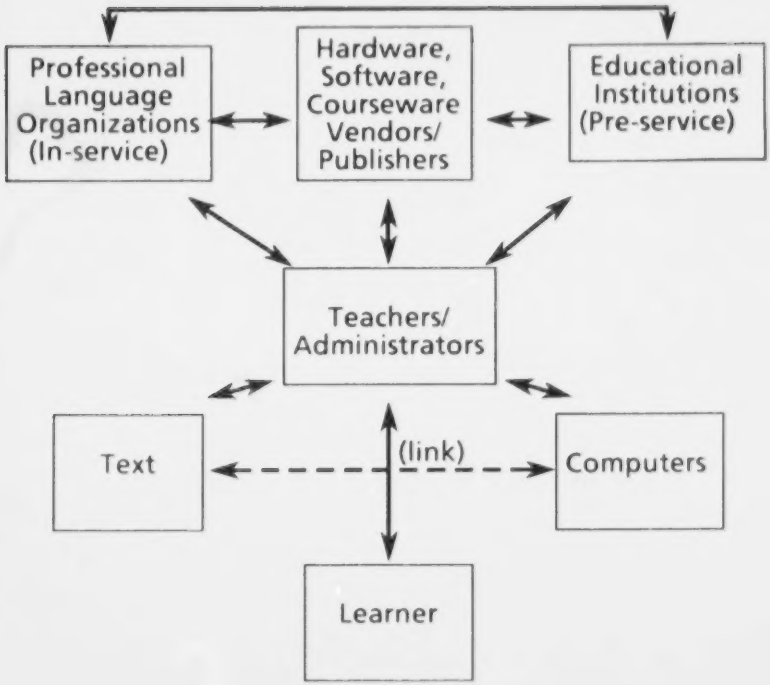

Figure 2

onsortia in order to meet their needs. It is hoped that these ducational institutions--whether operating as members of onsortia or individually--will fully utilize the programs vailable through CALICO and other professional language rganizations who seek to assist those wishing to develop nderstanding and expertise with new technologies and their pplications to the teaching and learning of languages.

3. It now becomes the responsibility of each educational nstitution to scrutinize applications of technology to the eaching and learning of languages, prioritize needs in relation o the capability of the educational institution to staff and onduct research in these areas, and to offer top-quality teacher ducation courses that will enable graduates to meet with

confidence the newly emerging needs of teachers and administrators.

4. Teachers/administrators must become involved as soon as possible and to a degree in keeping with the needs of their programs and students. It no longer makes sense for members of our profession to wait for any reason until new products are developed, new educational programs are in place, leadership is provided directly by their institutions or school districts, etc. The immediate need is for all of us to become involved in a way that is most meaningful to us personally. We must all find our place on the learning curve in order for this most important new form of instruction to grow and be successful in our educational program.

Stages of Progress in Instructional Programs Utilizing Computers and Interactivity

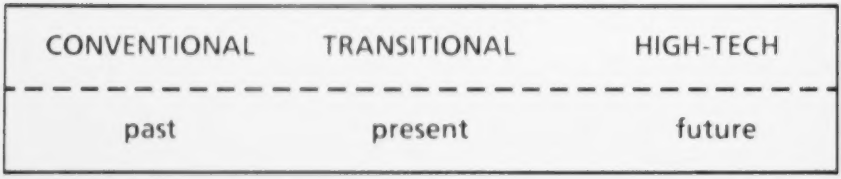

Figure 3

Most of us understand what is meant by conventional teacher/text instructional programs since we have been working with pencil-paper approaches to the teaching and learning of foreign languages for some time. While we have added media in the form of opaque and overhead projections and supplementary taped materials, most of us consider these approaches to be conventional.

We are now firmly entrenched in what I choose to call the transitional phase; that is, we have sought to supplement the conventional teacher/text approach with applications of computers at a very limited level of interactivity. Unfortunately, most of our efforts in this phase have resulted in the use of CAI/IL to supplement existing text materials that we refer to as "basic instructional materials." While some programs are highly innovative and have succeeded in motivating both

teachers and learners, the tendency is for us to consider CAI/IL approaches as peripheral to the central task at hand of dealing with "text" materials.

The high-tech phase opens new dimensions to us and promises to have an immense impact on the teaching and learning of foreign languages. Since the computer is rapidly establishing itself as a valid instructional medium, teachers and materials developers are faced with the question of how to integrate the computer into the traditional teacher/textbook classroom so that it enriches and enhances that environment by fully utilizing all capabilities of hardware/software/courseware.

The following section discusses how we may go about achieving full integration and application of the high-tech phase. Considerations in implementing CAI/IL programs indicate that:

1. We must design teacher educational materials and workshops that will bring instructors up to speed so that a smooth transition is made between present courseware/procedures and those to be developed during the high-tech phase.

2. Transitional core lesson material must be selected/developed in such a way that they may be repackaged in keeping with simulation formats to be made interactive for use during the high-tech phase.

3. Equipment specifications must be developed according to needs required to deliver instructional programs selected during the transition phase.

4. A plan of operations must be developed in order to provide a full Gestalt so that personnel can develop a part-whole relationship and smooth continuity from the transition phase to the high-tech phase.

5. A thorough study should be made of space utilization patterns so that equipment, courseware, and procedures are fully operational within the constraints of available space and facilities.

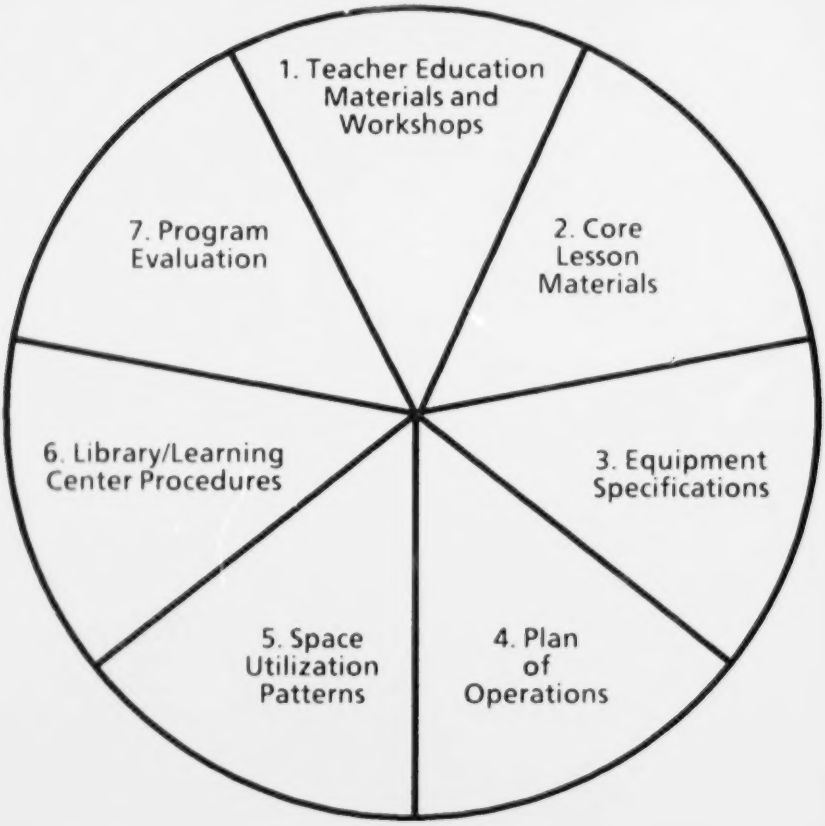
Considerations in Implementing CAI/IL Program
1. Teacher Education Materials and Workshops
2. Core Lesson Materials
3. Equipment Specifications
4. Plan of Operations
5. Space Utilization Patterns
6. Library/Learning Center Procedures
7. Program Evaluation

Figure 4

6. Library and learning centers must be developed so that proctors and monitors serve as effectively as possible in their roles as supervisors and facilitators.

7. Current programs must be evaluated in order to determine the extent to which they may be feasibly included as part of the high-tech phase, or adapted successfully to fit with

modifications that will enhance the entire instructional program.

IMPORTANT QUESTIONS TO BE ADDRESSED BY PROFESSIONAL LANGUAGE ORGANIZATIONS/EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS SEEKING TO PROVIDE GUIDANCE TO MEMBERS/STUDENTS INVOLVED WITH CAI/IL

Our professional language organizations and educational institutions must take the leadership role in providing guidelines for both in-service and pre-service teacher education programs that will lead to acceptable answers for the following questions:

1. What roles should teachers and administrators play in the selection of CAI/IL courseware? In order for an exemplary CAI/IL curriculum to be established, enabling and terminal teaching and learning objectives must be defined. Only teachers, administrators and instructional designers are in a position to state educational objectives in such a way that hardware and software specialists can design systems that are in keeping with the stated goals of the program.

2. What roles should teachers and administrators play in the design, development, programming and evaluation of CAI/IL materials developed "in house"? Most observers who have had opportunities to work in the area of courseware development would agree that teachers and administrators are best involved as designers and developers of lesson materials. Very few teachers have had opportunities to become involved enough with program-ming to fully understand systems capabilities and options for innovative and sophisticated applications in the area of programming. While workshops/seminars are available for teachers who want to learn more about computers, these sessions seldom are designed to meet the specific needs of language teachers. Moreover, those who have participated as members of courseware development teams have observed that teachers must not be overtaxed by being expected to provide exemplary lesson design and lesson development strategies in addition to having the responsibility for programming and evaluating courseware developed "in house."

3. Realistically, what should we expect CAI/IL courseware to enable us to do that we cannot do easily or would like help in accomplishing? The needs in this area are most critical since they serve as the basis for determining exactly what tasks and assignments should be addressed in both pre-service and in-service teacher education programs. These needs will vary depending upon the level of proficiency and the extent to which CAI/IL is an integral component of the instructional program.

4. What expectations should we assign to CAI/IL as the results of needs assessments and task analyses? Without teacher and administrator input in completing needs assessment and task analyses, the CAI/IL program is doomed to failure through misuse or disuse. Of course, in addition to input mentioned in these areas, there must be complete support expressed for the new program by all teachers and administrators.

5. How may we most effectively obtain the involvement of students in the revision and improvement of our CAI/IL programs? Students are anxious to be of assistance as we go about revising and improving CAI/IL programs in which they are involved. Our experience has been that student involvement in the revision and improvement of courseware correlates most positively with increased stu-dent motivation regarding CAI/IL programs. We have also experienced an increase in student/teacher/administrator satisfaction when all participants are involved in suggesting revisions and improvements to their courseware.

CHALLENGE

Whatever our future may be in CAI/IL, the extent to which we will be successful depends more on teacher and administrator participation than upon any other single variable. We hope that you will accept the challenge to become involved in a way that is meaningful to you.

CULTURAL DISTANCE AND THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING/LEARNING PROCESS

Mehmet Ali Çiçekdag

ABSTRACT *This paper tries to provide some answers to the following questions: How does lack of communication breed conflict? When and under what circumstances do prejudices come about? What happens when one's own standards are applied to foreign cultures? Why do people speaking different languages have different world views? What should we teach when teaching culture? How is cultural distance measured? What is culture shock and when does one experience it? What are stereotyping and ethnocentrism? What role do time, space and kinship ties play in culture and communication? How do traditional and modern individuals differ? Are there positive or negative correlations between cultural distance and foreign language teaching/learning?*

The conclusion is that cultural distance inhibits cross-cultural communication, including foreign language teaching/learning when carried out independently from culture. At the same time, cultural distance between students and foreign language instructors who are native speakers can contribute to learning if culture is taught systematically as part of the curriculum.

THE PROBLEM

In 1979 a President's report concluded that:

> At a time when the resurgent forces of nationalism and of ethnic and linguistic consciousness so directly affect global realities, the U.S. requires far more reliable capacities to communicate with its allies, analyze the behavior of potential adversaries, and earn the trust and sympathies of the uncommitted. Yet, there is a widening

> between these needs and the American competence to understand and deal successfully with other peoples in a world in flux. (President's Commission 1979: 1)

Since then, the destabilizing forces in the world have gained in strength, and despite increased efforts in problem-solving, U.S. competence in communicating with them effectively has fallen short.

LACK OF COMMUNICATION

Most social scientists agree that behind most aggression and conflict lies a lack of communication as well as a lack of contact. However, not only the quantity of communication, but also the quality is quite relevant to conflict both at individual and international levels. The messages which are passed between individuals do not always lead to a better understanding. Both cultural and linguistic barriers have adverse effects on relations. Misunderstanding and prejudice often stem from the fact that daily routines and priorities are different in different cultures. Even within an apparently homogeneous language community, varieties of the same language may be culturally divisive (Bickley 1982: 100).

It is generally believed that increased interaction between individuals and nations belonging to different cultures will reduce prejudice and inter-group tension and improve relations among individuals, groups, and nations. However, this can occur only when certain conditions are met. Members of alien or minority groups should be the same or higher in status than the members of the host or majority group; the contact should be more intimate than casual, more pleasant than unpleasant; and the climate and setting of contact must be suitable (Amir 1969: 338). Amir points out some conditions which strengthen prejudice: When the contact produces competition or frustration or lowers the status of a party, when it is involuntary, unpleasant, and tension-laden, and when the alien/minority group members are of lower status, prejudices are bolstered (Jaspars and Hewstone 1982: 129).

When applied to a foreign language teaching/learning environment where cultural distance exists between faculty and students, the above mentioned conditions prove to be valid and relevant.

There is no argument about the limiting effect of cultural distance on effective communication. However, the evidence also suggests that there exist both negative and positive correlations between cultural variables and foreign language teaching/ learning. In other words, cultural distance may well be restric-tive in foreign language learning; but channeled into the right direction, it could enhance the knowledge of foundations of the target language.

Before reaching such a conclusion, however, one must answer some relevant questions: What is cultural distance and how it is measured? What are its determinants? To what degree does cultural distance inhibit or improve communication in the target language? On a more practical level: Does the cultural distance between foreign-born language instructors and students inhibit or enhance the foreign language teaching/learning process? We can also apply the answers to these questions to U.S. personnel working overseas. Namely, how does the cultural distance between them and the members of the host nation influence effective communication and thus accomplishment of the goals?

Teaching foreign languages for communicative purposes is necessary but not sufficient given the fact that language is only one of the components of the larger entity called culture. Different cultures have different *Weltanschauungs*, frames of reference, and expectations.

According to Hall (1966):

> People from different cultures not only speak different languages, they inhabit different sensory worlds. Selective screen-ing of sensory data admits some things while filtering out others. This means that experience as it is perceived through one set of culturally patterned sensory screens is quite different from experience perceived through another.

If the same sensory data is applied to both native and target languages, one might commit serious errors as exemplified by literal translations. Therefore, the cultural setting in which foreign language textbooks are written is of extreme importance.

In an older but respectable textbook of Turkish the husband asks his wife to bring back from the grocery store "three kilos of ice, two packs of playing cards, tooth paste, and film for the camera" (McQuown II: 598). The fact is, however, that except for tooth paste, no regular grocery store does or is allowed to carry the rest. In 1945, probably most of the Turkish grocery stores did not have tooth paste either.

In our own DLI Basic Course Textbook for Turkish, Osman asks his friend Hasan: "There is a swimming pool to the left of your house. Is it yours?" Hasan replies: "No, it is not ours. Ours is to the right of the house" (DLI IV:14).

These are just two of the improbable and non-authentic situations which might occur if the same standards are applied to foreign cultures as to domestic ones.

CULTURAL RELATIVITY OF LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTIC DETERMINISM

Cultural relativity of languages and all other expressive behavior is an old problem dealt with by social scientists and linguists. Starting with Darwin (1872) a twofold question was posed: Are there significant cross-cultural differences in the ways emotional states are displayed? If so, what are these differences?

Indeed, the real meaning of the things a speaker says cannot fully be understood unless one knows something about the social norms of the community in which that speaker lives or has lived a long time. The speakers' social identities and situations are not just a backdrop; rather they have a more immediate and direct effect on the messages delivered. (Irvine 1982: 31-41).

Many linguists, including Whorf (1956) have theorized that the world view of a speech community is reflected in the linguistic pattern it uses. They believe that the way reality is categorized in the underlying patterns of a language is an indication how speakers of that language view the world. At the

same time, how they view the world depends on the language system they have. In the literature many examples are cited tying language with a world view: Eskimos and their snow; Americans and automobiles; Troibrand islanders and yams, etc.

Communication constitutes the core of culture and indeed of life itself. According to Whorf, language is more than a medium for expressing thought. It is a major element in the formation of thought. Hall (1966:2) uses the analogy of a computer to illustrate this point: Man's very perception of the world is programmed by the language he speaks, just as a computer is programmed. Like the computer, man's mind will register and structure external reality only in accordance with the program. Since two languages often program the same class of events differently, no belief or philosophical system should be considered apart from language.

In short, members of different language communities see and think of the world in different ways; each language implies a particular world view. From this line of thought, two principles were developed: 1) The principle of linguistic determinism, i.e., language determines thought; 2) The principle of linguistic relativity, i.e.,. every language embodies a definite world view (Hoermann 1971:310). The thesis of linguistic determinism leads to the realization that language is not simply an instrument we control; it also controls us.

TEACHING CULTURE, CULTURAL DISTANCE AND SUBJECTIVE CULTURE

Even though one cannot communicate effectively without a knowledge of the foreign culture, we do not necessarily teach culture when we teach language. Knowledge of the linguistic structure alone does not carry with it any special insight into any political, social, economic or religious system. While a convenient place to begin learning about the target culture is in our foreign language classes, culture must be taught systematically in addition to purely linguistic concerns. Whatever can be taught in the target language should be taught in the target language. Only when this is not realistic should culture classes be conducted in English (Seelye 1982:6).

In a typical foreign language teaching/learning institution, however, teaching the target language per se has priority, and

the teaching of culture is neglected. Apart from financial, manpower and time constraints, one reason for this is the enormous sphere that culture encompasses. Indeed, culture is seen in almost everything people learn to do, which includes the social order to which they are attached. According to one definition, culture is "the totality of socially transmitted behavior patterns, arts, beliefs, institutions, and all other products of human work and thought characteristic of a community or population (American Heritage)."

In short, teaching culture is an enormous task, and a focal point is desperately needed. Besieged by an endless procession of cultural studies from sociology, anthropology, political science, economics, social psychology, art, music and literature, the language teacher must choose and convey the relevant information within the above mentioned constraints. According to Nostrand (1966) language teachers should focus on just two basic purposes in teaching about a foreign way of life: cross-cultural communication and understanding.

The fact that the same concepts can be interpreted differently by members of different cultures and subcultures is called "subjective culture", "subjective lexicon", "cognitive map" or "world view" by social scientists. Basically, they refer to the phenomenon where different cultural groups extract and retain subjective meanings and images from past experiences.

When we learn the language of a cultural group we learn part of its subjective culture, but there is more to it. People can be experts in the language of a cultural group, yet may have a limited understanding of its subjective culture.

We know that different language behaviors are exhibited by different cultures and that real bilinguals can switch from one set of language behaviors into another without experiencing any difficulty. Similarly, intercultural interaction can be quite easy for those who know the subjective culture of the other cultural group. However, generally, this is not the case and most people, including foreign language teachers and students, encounter difficulty in intercultural contacts. Along the same line, the greater the similarity between two cultures, the easier becomes the contact. When the cultures are very different, contact is always difficult but an intermediate level between the extreme levels can probably be reached, depending on the familiarity of parties with the respective subjective cultures. Obviously, this

phenomenon has very important implications in all aspects of international relations.

MEASURING CULTURAL DISTANCE

Measuring cultural distance is a formidable task indeed. It is determined by numerous variables, many of them impossible to quantify. It requires an interdisciplinary endeavor involving anthropology, sociology, psychology, linguistics, political science and communication research. Moreover, by eliminating the irrelevant variables and choosing the relevant ones, the researcher injects a considerable degree of subjectivity into the problem.

Cultural distance is obtained by measuring the similarities and/ or differences between the culturally shared subjective meanings of two or more groups. The groups to be compared, however, must share certain characteristics and be "similar enough' Otherwise we encounter a focus problem and compare "apples with oranges".

As indicated above, selecting the relevant characteristics for the measurement of cultural distance is a complicated task. Szalay and Maday (1973: 151-173) suggest a three-step process to achieve this objective. First, members of each cultural sample are asked to list 25 important activities or domains of life. These may involve family, religion, love, money, work etc. Thus, a ranked list of high priority domains for each sample is developed. Second, ideas are elicited through free association for each of these domains. This provides a priority list of subjects or themes representative of high-priority domains. Third, a master list is developed by taking equal numbers of the high priority domains and their top themes from each culture. From that list, distances between dominant themes are measured.

Szalay et al. have measured the cultural similarities and distances among Black, White and Hispanic American groups in the Washington, D.C. area (Szalay et al. 1976). They found that the cultural distance between Blacks and Whites was relatively narrow, while Hispanic Americans' values and priorities were very distant from both Black and White Americans. They also divided each group into subgroups according to their income levels (low-middle-high). Their data show that the high-income groups in every culture are most similar and the low-income groups the least so.

Two other studies measured cultural distances among Puerto Ricans, Slovenians, South Koreans and Americans of comparable occupation, age, sex and education (Szalay and Bryson 1975; Szalay et al. 1971). When, for example, Korean and American occupational subsamples tested in their native countries are compared, students appear to be relatively close, while agriculturalists are the farthest apart. This suggests that education reduces cultural distance.

As all other social variables, cultural distance is a dynamic phenomenon and changes in time. But what is the direction of this change? Is there a divergence or a convergence between different cultures, ideologies, social groups and classes, ethnic racial groups, male and female and the young and the old? There are forces working on either side. Increased communication and education provide for convergence between different cultures.

On the other hand, deteriorating distribution of income among nations and groups increases cultural distance and levels of prejudice, ethnocentrism and parochialism. To counterbalance this latter trend, it is most important to include cultural and international studies in the regular foreign language curriculum.

CULTURE SHOCK

Foreigners in a different cultural setting experience cross-cultural misunderstanding and culture shock. The term "culture shock" was initially introduced by Oberg (1960:177-182) and referred to the distress experienced by the foreigner as a result of losing all the familiar signs and symbols of interaction.

The foreigner has to make an effort to adapt psychologically to the new culture. This, in turn, causes stress. Due to lack of linguistic skills, different appearance and interaction patterns, a foreigner cannot easily blend into the crowd. He/she might be rejected by and/or reject members of the new culture. Even if rejection does not occur, a mere perception of rejection is adequate for negative reaction. This often results from cultural distance and lack of foreign language comprehension.

Educated foreigners such as faculty members at the Defense Language Institute generally belonged to a higher social class in their native countries and are more class-conscious due to the

more rigid class hierarchy which prevailed there. Therefore, they may experience a sense of loss and feelings of deprivation in regard to status, profession, possessions and friends in the new environment. Furthermore, values, role expectations and feelings about in- and out-groups may differ in varying degrees. As a result, the foreigner may experience confusion, surprise, anxiety, even disgust and indignation. Finally, a feeling of impotence may arise from inability to cope adequately with the new environment.

Indeed aliens living in a foreign country usually undergo a classic case of culture shock which results from anxieties created by a new cultural environment. Adults living overseas for the first time in their lives cannot hope to be free from such anxieties (Larson and Smalley 1972:39). Culture shock is sometimes aggravated by anxiety resulting from the very knowledge that aliens overseas are likely to suffer from it. It can produce its own vicious circle: fear breeds fear. Maturity and experience in one's own culture do not necessarily protect the foreigner from culture shock. People who appear to handle problems very well at home may nevertheless find themselves unable to cope with the situations in a new community.

Aliens generally apply well-proven solutions from their own cultures to the new problems - and some are solved effectively. New ways of meeting some new problems are learned. Other problems, however, are not solved so easily, and this may cause culture stress. While culture shock may pass eventually, culture stress may continue for years.

My personal experience leads me to believe that study of a foreign language creates stress. Learners may worry about their lack of motivation or about their scores on aptitude tests. Students sometimes allow their attention to be distracted by minor elements in the school environment that may appear inadequate. Usually they live quite far from the country where the target language is spoken; culture may not be adequately taught. These facts have adverse effects on student motivation. Language study can be tiresome, boring and frustrating.

As all social phenomena, culture shock is subject to a change and adjustment process. Smalley (1963:51) proposed four stages or phases of culture shock: 1) Fascination with the new culture, 2) Hostility and frustration, 3) Improvement and adjustment, and 4) Biculturalism.

Two related inhibitors of cross-cultural communication are stereotyping and ethnocentrism. Levine and Campbell (1972:167) point out that "the greater the real differences between groups on any particular custom, appearance, item of material culture, the more likely that culture trait is to appear in the stereotyped imagery each group has of the other".

Ethnocentrism, on the other hand, may be described as a syndrome involving at least three basic factors: integration and loyalty among ingroup members, hostile relations between ingroup and outgroup members, and positive self-regard among ingroup members in contrast to derogatory stereotyping of outgroup characteristics (Seelye 1982:82).

When applied to a foreign language teaching environment, most of the above mentioned criteria seem to be relevant in different degrees. Many instructors who are native speakers may suffer from symptoms of culture shock and stress; they and/or their students may have or develop prejudices, stereotypes and strong senses of ethnocentrism in all cross-cultural com-munication.

CAN SUBJECTIVE CULTURE BE LEARNED?

The answer to this question is affirmative. Other than formal training about foreign cultures, individuals can adjust to different cultures with relative ease or difficulty depending on their cultural distance. For example, Americans find that they have to stand much closer to an Arab during interaction in the Middle East than they would with fellow Americans at home. Japanese learn to have more eye contact with Westerners during conversation than is customary in their own culture. An Englishman in Japan learns how to push and shove his way in the subway, but resume his normal queuing practice after returning home (Furnham and Bochner 1982:164).

Researchers dealing with comparative studies and everyone else engaged in cross-cultural communication need to have a skill called "empathy" which in layman's terms can be defined as "putting yourself in someone else's shoes". This, however, is a quite difficult proposition given our different backgrounds, cultural distances, prejudices and linguistic and cultural barriers. In different cultures different notions exist concerning

time, space and kinship relations, among others. It is a well-known fact that certain cultures rank time lower in overall importance than Northern Americans and Western Europeans. In Latin America, for example, one hears the expression, "our time or your time?" "Hora americana, hora mejicana?, (Hall 1959:28). When one asks a Turkish villager how far a certain destination is, the answer might be "five cigarettes smoking distance".

Americans and Arabs, for example, live in different sensory worlds much of the time and do not use the same senses to establish distances maintained during conversations. Hall (1966:2,3) points out that Arabs make more use of touch and smell than Americans. They not only speak different languages, but inhabit different sensory worlds. They have different understandings of the concept of "privacy" 1:

> Arabs avoid partitions in their homes because they do not like to be alone... Arabs are deeply involved with each other. Their personalities are intermingled and take nourishment from each other like the roots and soil. If one is not with people and actively involved in some way, one is deprived of life. An old Arab saying reflects this value: "Paradise without people should not be entered because it is Hell". Therefore, Arabs in the United States often feel socially and sensorily deprived and long to be back where there is human warmth and contact (Hall 1966:148).

In cross-cultural communication one should keep in mind that implicit messages also exist along with explicit ones. Freud, for example, heavily relied on the communicative significance of man's acts rather than his words and assumed that words hid much more than they revealed. Culture, too, exists on two levels: overt or explicit culture, which is visible and easily described, and covert or implicit culture, which is not visible and presents difficulties even to the trained observer. Law, for example, belongs to explicit culture, because people can talk about and be

specific about it. Implicit culture, such as feelings about success, is what they take for granted or what exists on the fringes of awareness.

TRADITIONAL AND MODERN CULTURES

Evidence suggests that the subjective culture of modern man is different than the subjective culture of traditional man. As indicated earlier, the major determinant of the subjective culture of modern man is education. The amount of education received by an individual is the best predictor of whether or not he/she will adapt to different cultural environments. The ideal modern man is apparently open to new experiences, relatively independent of parental authority, and concerned with time and planning and willing to defer gratification; he feels that man can be the master over nature and that he controls the reinforcements he receives from his environment. He believes in determinism and science, has a wide, cosmopolitan perspective, and uses broad ingroups. He competes with standards of excellence and is optimistic about controlling his environment.

The ideal traditional man, on the other hand, has narrow ingroups, looks at the world with suspicion, believes that one obtains a share of it by chance or perhaps by pleasing the gods. He identifies with his parents and receives direction from them. He feels at the mercy of obscure environmental forces and is prone to mysticism. He sees interpersonal relations as an end, rarely as means to an end. He does not believe that he can control his environment but rather sees himself under the influence of external, mystical powers (Triandis 1972;353).

As Triandis and Vasiliou point out with the Greek case, a strong ingroup-outgroup contrast can be detected in most traditional and transitional cultures. Triandis and Vassiliou 1972:299). Reality in those cultures is impregnated with social considerations, whereas in America it is focused on the individual. Members of traditional and transitional cultures define their universe in terms of the triumphs of the ingroup over the outgroup, and their social behaviors are strongly dependent upon whether other people are members of their ingroup. Relations with authority figures and conflicts are also conditioned by this ingroup-outgroup contrast.

At the societal level, Parsons (1951) developed five pairs of pattern variables, the first pattern characterizing traditional

societies: 1. Affectivity-Affective neutrality, 2. Collectivity-orientation-Self-orientation, 3.Particularism-Universalism, 4. Ascription-Achievement, 5. Diffuseness-Specificity.

By "ascription" sociologists mean the assignment of rank or role on the basis of birth, age, or sex rather than achievement. Particularism refers to an emphasis on kinship and local relations, whereas universalism denotes the prevalence of generally applicable norms, such as laws and principles. Thus, ascription is particularistic and ranking by achievement is universalistic (Merkl 1977:4).

Because modernization causes the breakup of traditional societies, it puts people in stressful social environments that may result in maladjustments. This transformation from *Gemeinschaft* (community) to *Gesellschaft* (society) is believed to be one-directional and irreversible.

In real life, however, traditional and modern societies are not necessarily the anti-theses of one another. Both contain elements of each other, and there are many transitional societies which cannot be so easily categorized. When we speak of traditional cultures, we lump together a vast variety of systems, some elaborate and sophisticated, and others primitive tribal cultures with rather simple social structures and hardly any political structures. Thus, cultural distance between modern and traditional individuals and groups is constantly changing and difficult to measure.

CONCLUSION

Most conflicts occur because of lack of communication and misunderstandings between two cultures. At the same time there is a reciprocal cause-and-effect or chicken-and-egg relationship between lack of effective communication and cultural distance.

As a general rule, cultural distance in cross-cultural communication brings along such inhibitors as prejudice, stereotyping, ethnocentrism, cultural shock and stress. As a communicative enterprise, foreign language teaching also gets its share of adverse impacts from cultural distance. This occurs especially when teaching of culture is neglected and foreign languages are taught more or less independently from their cultural settings.

Cultural distance, the very inhibitor of the foreign language teaching/learning process can contribute a lot of insight to the latter if channeled in the right direction. Cultural distance is a strong social force; the very nature of foreign languages enables us to take advantage of this force by teaching culture. This tool, of course, may provide us with better communicative skills, understanding and ultimately peace with foreign cultures and their people. This is what foreign language teaching/learning is -or should be- all about.

FOOTNOTES

[1]I have heard that in the Russian language there is no single word equivalent for "privacy", probably because they do not have much of it. The same can be said about the Turkish language and social life.

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COMMUNICATING WITH MORE THAN WORDS

Yildiray Erdener

ABSTRACT *Drawing upon information collected in a survey conducted among students at the Defense Language Institute, as well as upon observations made by the author over a ten year period in the United States, this paper investigates the role of gestures in human communication.*

Students were asked to explain the meaning of four gestures commonly used in Turkey. Using their responses as examples, I demonstrated the importance of teaching nonverbal as well as verbal communication skills in language classes.

Students of linguistics have been recording, analyzing and comparing the verbal aspects of various human languages since the nineteenth century. The nonverbal aspects, on the other hand, were largely ignored primarily because they could not be as easily recorded.

Scholars and language students, however, are aware of the fact that learning to "speak" a given language involves more than acquiring verbal ability in that language. In other words, if one wants to communicate effectively in a foreign language, one should learn not only the grammar but also all of the identifiable noises (paralanguage), body movements (kinesics), and cultural uses of space (proxemics) which accompany the activity of speaking. Communication, as a multichannelled system (Birdwhistell 1964:380), cannot rely on any one channel to convey complete meaning.

The verbal message then is not the only reliable channel people depend on. Verbal competence, kinesics, paralanguage and proxemics are seen as interdependent parts of the whole with a change in the flow or intensity in any one of these channels effecting the content of the entire message. "...the villagers' interpretation of communication depends on something more than their discursive content ..." (Adams 1964:272).

Some scholars even maintain that in face-to-face communication nonverbal information is more important than verbal messages. "...we would go so far as to claim that gestural information is even more important than verbal..." (Morris, Collett, Marsh and O'Shaughnessy 1980:xi).

It is debatable whether "gestural information is more important than verbal" but it seems obvious that a nonverbal clue can sometimes convey the meaning of a message more forcefully than the spoken word. Those who are not familiar with the nonverbal behavior of a particular culture cannot correctly interpret those crucial silent messages and, as a result, the communication with them is incomplete and insufficient.

Teaching or learning a complete system of communication means focusing on more than just verbal abilities. Underestimating the importance of nonverbal cues could cause grave problems for students living in a foreign culture. In some European countries, for example, one could be prosecuted for a gestural mistake.

> Some gestural activities can still bring police prosecution in certain countries. We encountered this in Germany and in Malta... In Malta we were warned not to make the forearm jerk in the streets when interviewing informants. In England certain obscene gestures, such as the palmback V-sign might easily be construed as "insulting behaviour" in the legal sense if directed offensively at police ...(Morris, et al. 1980:268).

In addition to the forearm jerk, mentioned above, there are other gestures which are considered obscene insults or hostile behavior in Turkey. In an effort to gather some information about nonverbal language acquisition among students at the Defense Language Institute, I distributed a questionnaire to twenty-two students asking them to explain four gestures

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[1]I also used my ten years of observations in American society.

commonly used in Turkey.[1] The following is the result of the survey which I conducted on July 10-11, 1986.

The first gesture which I asked the students to comment on was the forearm jerk which is one of the most obscene insults in Turkey. It is performed in the following way: while the fist of the right hand is clenched, the arm is bent at the elbow with the help of the left hand which slaps down the right upper-arm as it is being raised. The described gesture is a symbol of a phallic threat which is primarily anal. The forearm jerk is used to express a hostile feeling in an obscene way and translates as 'up yours,' 'get lost,' 'scram,' etc. Ninety percent of the students I interviewed interpreted the forearm gesture correctly.

The second hand movement I asked the students about was the fig-sign: the hand is closed and the tip of the thumb can be seen between the first and the second fingers. In Turkey the "fig" represents the vagina with the thumb indicating the penis inserted into it. It carries messages such as 'get lost,' 'take this,' 'this is all you'll get,' or 'you are less than a man.' Sixty percent of the students said that they had no idea what the gesture meant, twenty two percent interpreted the fig-sign as a playful action meaning 'I have your nose in my hand,' and only eighteen percent defined the gesture as a sexual insult.

This lacuna in cross cultural communication reminded me of a similar miscommunication which I experienced some years ago. While studying at the Goethe Institute in Germany I was shocked to see my professor pointing to the blackboard with his hand in the fig position. Obviously he was unaware of what the gesture connoted to his Turkish students.

The next gesture I asked the students to interpret was the "ring": the thumb and forefinger form a circle and the other three fingers are extended. All but one student understood the ring as an O.K. sign, i.e. 'approval of an action,' 'everything is going well,' 'real good,' 'super.' On the contrary, the ring in Turkey means 'you are a homosexual,' or 'you have a large orifice.' It is thought to have become an obscene insult because the circular shape represents a body orifice, usually the anus. One can imagine the embarrassment of an American officer who tries to tell his Turkish colleague that everything in a particular military maneuver is going well by performing the ring sign.

Finally, I questioned the students as to what kind of message the head toss would convey to them. The head is tossed upwards and backwards in a short jerk while the eyebrows are raised. This action is accompanied by a 'tschk' sound which is produced by the tongue. Thirty six percent of the students said that they did not know what the gesture meant. The remaining students tried to come up with meanings such as 'come here,' 'hello,' 'what is going on?' 'what do you want?' and 'who are you kidding?' None of them, however, came close to interpreting the meaning of the gesture in Turkey, where the head toss is a common way of saying 'no.' On occasion the "tschk" sound is produced by the tongue without the head movement to express negation.

In this paper I purposely identified three obscene gestures in order to dramatically demonstrate the importance of the nonverbal aspects of communication.[2] Needless to say, there are hundreds of other gestures which are used in people's daily communication. Of the four gestures I discussed, only one, the forearm jerk, was well known to American students.. Some of them told me that they first learned this gesture from cab drivers in New York. Apparently over time, as people from Europe,Asia and Africa came to the New World they introduced into their new language (English) some of the nonverbal gestures of their home cultures. The remaining three gestures seemed to be unknown in American culture, or to have meanings different from those in Turkey. The ring sign, for example, exists in American and Turkish cultures but it has entirely different meanings in each country. Thus in each culture gestures reflect culture specific ideas. Through paralanguage, kinesics, and proxemics we send cultural messages as a part of nonverbal communication. To increase communication through cultural awareness in a given target language we therefore should educate our students in nonverbal as well as verbal languages.

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[2]More information about these gestures can be found in Morris, et al. *Gestures.*

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GOALS AND OBJECTIVES IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

Lidia Woytak

ABSTRACT *The purpose of this article is to identify the role of goals and objectives in proficiency-oriented foreign language teaching. An overview of educational goals and objectives is presented and the role of goals and objectives in audio-lingual language learning is described. Next, the function of goals and objectives in proficiency-oriented instruction is discussed. Further, the possibility of deriving goal statements from positive elements of the proficiency level descriptions is pointed out. A procedure for a goal design is outlined. Subsequently, the main goal of the proficiency-oriented learning is defined and skill area goal statements for speaking, listening, reading and writing as well as cultural and affective goal statements are listed. Conclusion is made that proficiency level descriptions can be used as a tool in designing a proficiency-oriented curriculum.*

INTRODUCTION

Renewed interest in various modes of communicative foreign language teaching has emerged in recent years. Teachers at both secondary and post-secondary levels have responded positively to the idea of implementing such approaches as the Total Physical Response, the Natural Approach, functional learning and learning for proficiency. Teachers however, have discovered that they need specific implementation guidelines and that the guidelines of the traditional program of instruction are not applicable to the communicative models. Teachers may now determine how to lead their students to communicative proficiency in a foreign language and what skills learners have to demonstrate throughout the course and upon its completion. (Higgs 1984)

Although there have been a number of articles, books and conference presentations addressing communicative methods, a thorough guidance on their implementation is still to come. The purpose of this article is to fill this gap in part and thus to mark the first steps leading to the implementation of a functional language learning program. How does one know whether a learner is able to function in a foreign language? What is the

learner expected to demonstrate? What constitutes acceptable performance? To answer these questions, one needs to turn to goals.

GOALS AND OBJECTIVES IN EDUCATION

Goals are a crucial element in foreign language design and instruction. Goals are broad statements of the proposed direction of the educational process. They: (1) state what students are to learn to do, and (2) describe the desired changes in personal development. These two goals are often referred to as cognitive and affective. Objectives, on the other hand, are more specific than goals. According to Robert M. Gagné, "...objectives always refer to the learner's performance to be attained following learning..." (Gagné 1985) Ideally, reaching a set of objectives would automatically lead to the attainment of a goal.

Goals and objectives function as organizers during developmental and instructional processes, quality control indicators and - finally - as a bridge between the learner, the teacher and the administrator. The teacher and the learner may use objectives to attain a goal in teaching and learning respectively. The administrator may use the objectives to check whether the instructional system is working and whether it is conducive to learning.

During the developmental process, goals and objectives help the program planner to identify the purpose, the scope and the content of the selected materials. Subsequently, during the instruction, they are used to instill awareness in teachers and learners as to what they have to do and why they are doing it. Learners who are aware of course goals and objectives develop a stronger desire to learn and their attitude towards the language they study is more positive. (Woytak 1984, Harper 1975:327)

Goals and objectives are also an important tool in determining educational accountability. The acceptance of these concepts at an institutional level is the first step towards accountability. (Steiner 1975, Bidwell 1975:117) They serve as the basis for evaluation of the program; did the school do its duty? Were the students given the opportunity to perform at the expected level? Cost-effectiveness is an important part of educational accountability. The majority of studies have indicated that the cost-effectiveness ratio was greater for instruction based on goals and objectives than with traditional instruction. (Young 1978:5606-5607)

Although the importance of goals and objectives in foreign language instruction is acknowledged by the proponents of audio-lingual and communicative approaches, they are not interpreted identically. Although both methods call for performance on the part of learner or - in other words - on observing learner doing something, they evoke different types of performance. The differences between audio-lingual and communicative goals and objectives stem from different methodological assumptions.

GOALS AND OBJECTIVES IN AUDIO - LINGUAL LEARNING

Typical goals of the audio-lingual and - especially - structural approaches traditionally emphasized the ability to know the language and to produce complete sentences. The real goals of these approaches have been based on the assumption that "learning a foreign language equals learning that language's structure, along with a generous amount of vocabulary, all carefully sequenced and spooned out in judicious doses." (Heilenmen and Kaplan 1985:59) Thematically, the sentences have been usually grouped around a selected grammatical feature such as "Subjunctive," or "Genitive Singular." Robert J. Kibler, Larry L. Barker and David T. Miles in the book *Objectives for Instruction* have listed examples of instructional objectives aiming at structural correctness:

> Given a set of kernel sentences with an adjective in the predicate, the student will identify the predicate and the adjective.
>
> Given incomplete sentences which include a choice of pronouns in different cases, the student will select the pronoun in the correct form to complete the sentence. (Kibler, Barker and Miles 1970:172.)

Focus on elicitation of isolated sentences have led naturally to emphasis on accuracy. Unfortunately, striving for accuracy has caused the following side-effects: (1) training inflexibility through too close a reference to a descriptive model; (2) neglecting adaptability and the ability to improvise; (3) domination of written forms over spoken forms. (Brumfit 1983:187)

COMMUNICATIVE GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

Amongst various communicative approaches, it was the learning for proficiency which has revived the concepts of goals and objectives. This mode of language learning has entailed proficiency testing based on scales developed originally by the Foreign Service Institute in the 1950's and, subsequently, refined in 1980's by academic and government circles, namely, the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, the Educational Testing Service and the Interagency Language Roundtable. (Liskin-Gasparro 1984:476)

Similarly to objectives, proficiency scales or levels have referred to the outcome of instruction, and not to the instructional process. The levels have been evaluative in nature and have evolved to distinguish among people, specifically to identify the degree of their foreign language abilities. (Heilenmen and Kaplan, 1985:57-58) Each level has contained positive and negative descriptive elements. (ILR Proficiency Level Guidelines 1983) Positive elements have identified tasks required at a given level of performance, i.e., *giving directions, asking for information*, or *making travel arrangements*. Negative elements, on the other hand, have identified typical learner deficiencies expected at a particular level, i.e., *fractured syntax, faulty pronunciation* or *limited vocabulary*. Typical positive and negative elements for Level 1 in Speaking have been presented below:

Positive
can arrange accommodations
express courtesy
exchange greetings
introduce self
elicit and provide biographical information
give information about business hours
explain office matters
state what actions will be taken

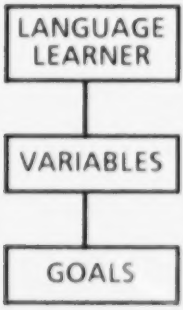
Negative
poor pronunciation, stress and vocabulary
limited vocabulary
structural errors

It has been very difficult to assess the extent of learners' *limited vocabulary, fractured syntax* or *structural errors*. If, however, the negative elements of proficiency guidelines were replaced by

measurable criteria, then it would be possible to determine whether a learner reached a certain level or not. Such structure of proficiency levels would resemble the form of goals or summative objectives. (Gagné 1985)

DESIGNING GOALS

John Munby in his book *Communicative Syllabus Design* recommends that in order to establish valid goals, it is necessary to identify learners and their needs. (Munby 1978:28-29) In his theoretical framework, he presents the following sequence:



Thus, as a first step, the designer identifies the group of learners whose needs she wished to meet - the target group. A target population description is a careful examination of the characteristics (abilities, education, interests, and so forth) of those for whom instruction is intended. (Mager 1972:8-9) Subsequently, the designer defines what level the learners should attain and thus establishes what the learners need to do with a foreign language. (Van Ek 1975:4) A need is identified when a discrepancy is found between an ideal or acceptable state of affairs and the status quo. Following their identification, needs are verified and prioritized. (Munby 1978) Subsequently, they are translated into useful statements for the purpose of designing instructional systems. (Gagné and Briggs 1976:53) As a result of this translation educational goals begin to take shape. The goals of the proficiency based curriculum have to be predicted on actual observations of many learners as they actually attempt to use the languages they are learning.

Thus, the main goal of the proficiency-oriented instruction is to enable the majority of the learners to interact

verbally at a desired proficiency level. A review of the ILR or ACTFL/ETS proficiency scales would lead to the following main goal:

> You will attain Level 2 in Listening and another skill area, either Speaking or Reading, with differing levels of skill develop-ment in other areas including culture and personal awareness.

Since the content of this goal is so general, it would be difficult to use it. However, this goal provides a basis for the development of detailed statements referring to skill areas, culture and personal development.

Skill area goal statements are based on the tasks (positive elements) contained in the skill level descriptions. For example, if our goal is level 2 is Listening, then we have to extract all items describing specific tasks from level 0+, 1, 1+ and 2. Presented below are skill area goal statements for Listening, Speaking and Reading Level 2.

Goal Statement - Listening

> While listening to conversations and narrations conducted in person or via the electronic media such as telephones, TV, radio, and tape recorders, you will identify main ideas, factual content and required (selected) pieces of information. The speech will be focused on all survival needs including minimum courtesy and travel requirements, meals, lodging, transportation, time, directions and orders, routine social demands, common personal and family news, everyday topics, well-known current events and routine office matters.

Goal Statement - Speaking

> You can handle routine social and work interactions. Specifically, you can exchange greetings, introduce yourself, elicit and provide biographical information. Also you can give all kinds of directions and make a variety of travel and accommodation arrangements.

Goal Statement- Reading

> You will read uncomplicated but authentic texts to identify general subject matter, get main ideas and locate significant items. You will also use contextual

and real world cues to understand the text. The texts will deal with such topics as news items describing frequently occurring events, biographical information, social notices, formulaic business letters, simple technical material, basic government structure, geographical information and descriptions of people, places and things.

Since every language is an integrated part of a specific culture, it would be beneficial to include a cultural goal statement. A sample is presented below:

Cultural Goal Statements

You will develop the cultural understandings, attitudes, and performance skills needed to function appropriately with a society of the target language and to communicate with the culture bearer. Specifically, you will demonstrate that:

1. People act the way they do because they are using options the society allows for satisfying basic physical and psychological needs.

2. Human actions are determined by age, sex, social class and place of residence.

3. People act conventionally in the most common and crisis situations in the target culture.

4. Culturally conditioned images are associated with even the most common target words and phrases. (Seelye 1981:38-41)

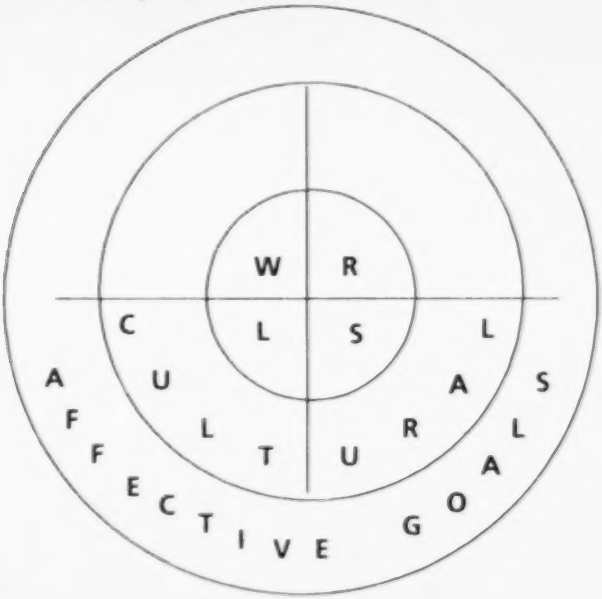
Such authors as A.D. de Groot and Florence Steiner have recommended that affective or personal goals be a part of a successful foreign language curriculum. Sample statements are provided below: (de Groot 1975:41 and Steiner 1975: 115-127)

Personal Goal Statements

1. You will discuss the impact of the course on you as an individual and on your career. You will find out more about yourself, your career plans, your new interests as well as your strengths and weaknesses.

2. You will develop a tolerant attitude towards people belonging to social, cultural and ethnic groups different from your own.

All these operational goals could be visualized as one combined goal as in the chart presented below:



Such a goal may serve as a basis for deriving objectives and the latter, in turn. may be used to design learning activities. Thus a link between intention (program goals) and reality (everyday foreign language instruction) could be established.

In summary, proficiency level descriptions can be changed into goal statements. Thus, they lend themselves not only to proficiency testing but they can also be used as a basis of a proficiency-oriented design. Such a design may be welcomed by the teacher who stands for effective, responsible innovation. It may also be welcomed by the learner because it is learner-oriented, because it centers on the development of functional skills and - finally - because it prepares for proficiency-oriented testing.

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FACULTY EXCHANGE

RESEARCH AT DLI--ALIVE, WELL, AND GROWING

John A. Lett, Jr.

Research--the word conjures up a multitude of images: Wizened old scholars peering through thick glasses at musty tomes in a far corner of the library, absent-minded professors playing endless intellectual games in ivy-covered buildings from which they never emerge except to wander about trying to find the car they left parked at home, or even crazed scientists in white coats scurrying around like the rats with which they are experimenting, glaring with beady eyes at all who come near. There are also more positive images, of course, such as medical researchers surrounded by beakers and test tubes as they search for a cure for cancer, or engineers designing and testing new concepts in the aerospace industry. To all of these images should be added one appropriate for educational institutions such as DLI: responsible and professional educators engaged in disciplined, systematic inquiry into how people learn and how they can be helped to do so most effectively and efficiently. That kind of research is alive and well at DLI, and this article presents an overview of where we are, where we have been, and where we hope to be as we attempt to derive more and more benefits from educational research activities in the field of foreign language education.

THE HISTORY OF RESEARCH AT DLI

Those who have been at DLI for some time have become familiar with the frequency and rapidity of change, and the history of research efforts at DLI illustrates it well. For one thing, DLI research and development activities have been housed and managed in many different organizational ways throughout DLI's history. For another thing, operational priorities have resulted in the term "research" being used at DLI mostly to refer to curriculum development efforts, such as the collection and archiving of cultural and linguistic data (especially in the less commonly taught languages) or the actual development of course and test materials (especially prototype versions), including various aspects of instructional technology and syllabus design. Additionally, DLI has had authorization to conduct only "applied research" or "studies," in accordance with

the various levels of research effort as defined by Congress. Finally, given DLI's unique mission and characteristics, there has been little or no systematic or sustained recognition of the importance of research over the years, nor sufficient institutional incentives to encourage faculty or staff to conduct it, despite the notable research efforts of a number of individuals, some of whose work is still being cited by the academic community.

It was not until 1983 that sufficient interest and resources evolved at higher levels of authority to permit DLI to begin implementing the research component of the Academic Master Plan in the form of the establishment of a formal organization to plan and conduct research. This was accomplished in 1984 with the creation and filling of the first two Educational Researcher positions, whose duties include managing, directing,performing, and coordinating intra- and interagency research pertaining to the Defense Foreign Language Program. These positions were housed in the Evaluation Division, renamed the Evaluation and Research Division. In November 1986 the Directorate of Evaluation and Standardization (DES) was renamed the Directorate of Program Evaluation, Research, and Testing, and in January 1987 a separate Research Division was created within the Directorate.

CURRENT STATUS OF RESEARCH ACTIVITIES

Major Research Areas

DLI's mission to train Department of Defense (DoD) personnel as linguists and to serve as the DoD center for research in language education requires an ongoing effort to find better ways to teach languages and measure learning outcomes. These efforts may be grouped into three major areas: the learner, the instructional process, and the proficiency outcomes. Consideration of each area leads to certain kinds of research questions. For example, research about the learner attempts to answer such questions as these:

> What personal cognitive and affective attributes characterize successful and unsuccessful language learners? What student learning strategies are associated with success? Are any of these variables trainable? How can DLI and its user agencies best select, assign, and nurture students to maximum advantage?

Consideration of the instructional process leads to questions such as these:

> What methodologies suit DLI's needs best? Can instruction be tailored to individual learning styles? What is the role of the language to be learned in determining appropriate instructional methodologies? What is the optimal role of educational technology as an integrated partner in the teaching-learning process? What is the optimum configuration of classroom instruction (e.g., length and intensity of program, optimal use of classroom time vs. self-study time, optimal use of computer-based technology, etc.) for given course goals? How can educational managers and policy makers make intelligent decisions about these issues? How can DLI graduates be assisted in maintaining and enhancing their language skills after they have left DLI?

Research into the assessment of proficiency outcomes involves questions like these:

> How can DLI most validly, reliably, and efficiently assess learner outcomes? How can computer adaptive testing play a role? How can we determine the relative contributions of general language proficiency and job-specific language skills in preparing students for optimal job performance? How can skill change over time be predicted and managed?

Even when grouped as above, the number of questions to be addressed is formidable. To make it easier to see the interrelationships among the many variables that contribute to how well a given student will learn a foreign language, a "DLI Model of Foreign Language Learning" has been developed (Figure 1), based on adaptations of the well-known Carroll "Model of School Learning" (Carroll, 1963, 1974).

Projects Completed or Under Way

Since the creation of the present research function at DLI, many projects have been undertaken, some on an in-house basis and some in partnership with the Army Research Institute (ARI), the Training Technology Agency (TTA) of the U.S. Army

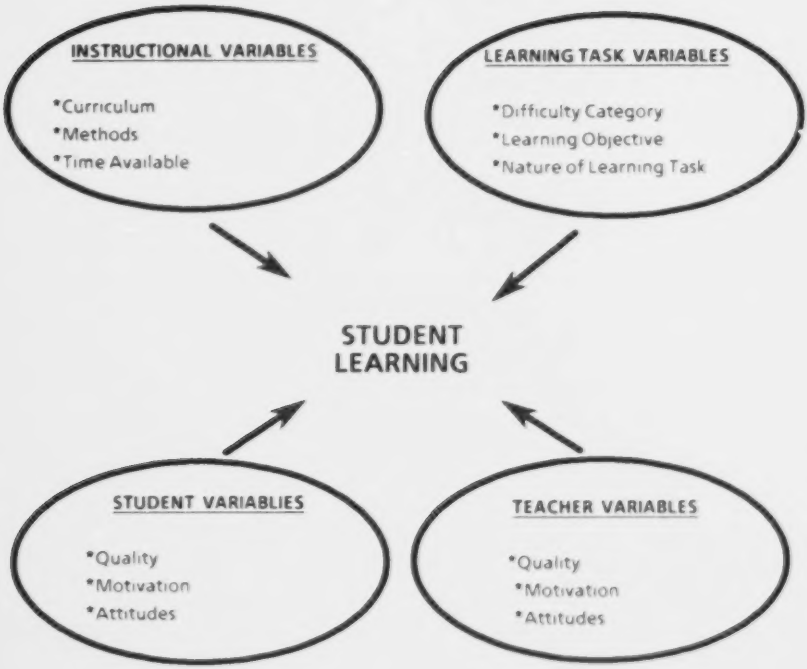

Figure 1.
1986 DLI MODEL OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Training and Doctrine Command (TRADOC), and other agencies and institutions, both governmental and non-governmental. Some of these projects are summarized below.

The Language Skill Change Project (LSCP). The LSCP is a four-year longitudinal study of Army linguists in the Korean, Russian, German, and Spanish languages who hold selected military occupational specialties (MOSs)in the military intelligence field. The study is being conducted jointly by DLI and ARI in coordination with the US Army Intelligence Center and School and a number of other units and agencies. The objectives of the LSCP are to describe and understand the nature and extent of language skill change after DLI language training, as well as to assess and describe the relationship between general language proficiency and job performance. The over

1,000 students in the study will be tracked and tested with alternate forms of the DLPT III from the time they enter DLI until they have finished their first tour of duty or have separated from the service. In addition, the wealth of data being gathered at the beginning of DLI language training will assist researchers in developing a profile of the successful language learner in the DLI context. The LSCP will shed light on many of the variables suggested in Figure 1, and will mark the first time that hard data will have been collected and analyzed on how these variables perform in the intensive military language training and utilization environment.

Educational Technology Needs Assessment (ETNA). In cooperation with DLI's Educational Technology (formerly New Systems) Division, a major review of the capabilities and roles of educational technology in foreign language education was recently begun under contract. When completed, this study will provide comprehensive information and decision models which will be useful in determining how best to employ computers, videodisc players, and other technological devices in both resident and non-resident language programs. In addition to the ETNA, the Research Division is also collaborating closely with the Educational Technology Division in coordinating with other DoD agencies on various educational technology projects.

Suggestopedia. In a study conducted jointly by DLI and ARI for the U.S. Army Soldier Support Center, the use of a teaching approach known as Suggestopedia was contrasted with DLI's approach. Suggestopedia, an approach widely used in Eastern Europe, involves the use of psychological relaxation techniques to maximize receptiveness to learning, and is claimed to produce very accelerated learning. In our carefully designed and controlled study, however, the students taught by the contracted suggestopedic instructors did not outperform the traditionally-taught students over the experimental period (Phase I of the Russian Basic Course),nor were there any striking differences in the end-of-course proficiency scores (see Table 1).

Thirteen-Week Extension of Basic Course. The Research Division assisted in setting up and evaluating the recently completed 60-week Korean study in which 18 Basic Course students were selected to remain at DLI for an additional 13 weeks of language training after graduation. Based on student opinion and on DLPT scores at 47 and 60 weeks, the additional 13 weeks of resident training did not appear to be effective in raising exit-DLI proficiency in Korean.

Table 1. Frequencies of End-of-Course Proficiency Scores Obtained by Students in Suggestopedia Study*

Language Skill	Group	PROFICIENCY LEVELS 1	1+	2	2+	3	TOTAL
LISTENING	Experimental	2	7	3	1		13
	Control	7	5	2			14
READING	Experimental	3	6	2	2		13
	Control	4	2	6	2		14
SPEAKING	Experimental	4	3	4	2		13
	Control	5	5	4			14

*Both Experimental and Control groups began with 20 students divided into sections of 10 students each.

Seven-hour Day. The Research Division also assisted in monitoring the recent study in which 29 Korean students received an additional hour of language laboratory work daily, consisting of listening activities that served as a bridge to their follow-on training at Goodfellow Air Force Base. Preliminary findings suggest that this was a worthwhile learning experience, although more because of the nature of their seventh-hour activities than because of having had an additional hour of class each day. These individuals will be tracked at Goodfellow to assess any long-term effects.

Testing Issues. Although the Testing Division is the proponent for all Defense Foreign Language Program (DFLP) testing issues, the Research Division has assisted in two areas, computer-adaptive testing (CAT) and job performance language tests (JPLT). Preliminary efforts have been undertaken to investigate the suitability of using computer-adaptive testing at DLI and throughout the DFLP. The major advantages of the CAT approach are that the test questions presented to a given student can be easily tailored to that student's general proficiency range, the item pool can be easily updated and augmented, test security is enhanced, and testing

time is reduced. The CAT model may also be useful in the development of job performance language tests, which could be used in the field along with DLPTs and Soldiers' Qualifying Tests (SQTs) to assess the linguist's ability to perform the specific job he or she is trained to do. The US Army Intelligence Center and School at Fort Huachuca, Arizona, has the formal tasking to develop and deliver JPLTs in several major MOSs and languages; DLI has provided informal consultation and will continue to assist.

FUTURE RESEARCH ACTIVITIES AT DLI

As DLI moves through the 1980s and on into the '90s, and the need for more and better linguists continues to grow, so also will the need for more and better knowledge about how to educate those linguists. If we are to meet these challenges, more and better research-generated knowledge will have to be brought to bear on educational decisions and policies at DLI, and all staff and faculty members at DLI have important roles to play in the development and utilization of this knowledge. To meet these needs, three simultaneous approaches are planned: an expanded Research Division, more joint research activity with partners in government and academic settings,and expanded support for the research activities of DLI faculty members. Each is discussed briefly below.

Expanded Research Division

Current authorizations provide for a six-person Research Division consisting of a division chief, four other research professionals, and a division secretary, with the possible addition of one to two additional training research specialists to serve as TRADOC representatives in support of projects conducted jointly with the Training Technology Agency. With these personnel, more and better projects can be successfully conducted and reported within DLI, and more assistance can be provided to other staff units in joint efforts to apply research-generated knowledge.

Expanded Joint Activities

Despite the growth in the DLI Research Division, it must be recognized that no in-house research unit will ever be able to fully satisfy DLI's informational needs--there is too much that the profession at large still does not know about language learning. Fortunately, however, there is great potential for

liaison with non-DLI language education researchers, particularly those in academia, who typically have considerable opportunity to develop theories and design projects, but whose access to research subjects is usually limited to small numbers of students in the first two years of the commonly taught languages. DLI offers such researchers the free world's largest living laboratory in which to conduct applied research into language learning, teaching, and testing. Thus, one of the major tasks of the new Research Division will be that of aggressively pursuing and developing this joint research potential.

Expanded Support for Faculty Research

DLI's more than 800 academic personnel constitute a huge reservoir of largely untapped potential. Like university faculty members, many of DLI's faculty and staff are qualified by education and experience to conduct useful classroom research; some have done so, or are doing so at this very moment, but have found it difficult to have their work recognized and implemented because of the lack of an appropriate coordinating staff office. Others are developing their ability to do research through degree programs such as the new MATFL program offered through the Monterey Institute of International Studies, although they may find it hard to imagine having time to do research as well as meet their obligations to "train the load. "However, with the advent of the team teaching concept and possibly a new personnel management system, there will be more time available for faculty research activities, as well as greater expectations and support for them.

In this regard, a major role of the Research Division will be to serve as a coordinating and support unit for faculty research. A Research Consulting Service will be set up to provide consultation to faculty on such matters as problem specification, sample size and sampling procedures,instrument development, data collection, statistical analyses, and other aspects of research design. In addition, by identifying and prioritizing areas in which research is needed and serving as an information exchange about projects recently completed or presently under way, the Research Division can assist both faculty and management in our joint pursuit of excellence in foreign language education.

CONCLUSION

The future of research at DLI is bright, but also challenging. The opportunity to make major contributions to the state of the art in language education is clearly at our fingertips--we have the students, the languages, the faculty...and the requirement. Having long been recognized as the place to go to learn a language quickly and well, DLI is now being recognized openly as a (if not *the*) DoD center for research in language teaching,learning, and testing. It is up to all of us to make sure we measure up to the task and continue to deserve that recognition.

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SOCIAL CONVENTIONS IN THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM (ACTFL CONFERENCE PRESENTATION)*

Foazi Y. El-Barouki, Marianne Armstrong,
Motoko Tabuse, and Alice K. Lee

INTRODUCTION

The significance of sociolinguistic/cultural features is apparent when language competence is measured by the extent to which a person can perform specific tasks in a foreign country. Even the most difficult features of a foreign language can be learned more easily when they are introduced and practiced in contexts which are relevant to the needs of the students.

This paper is divided into four sections: Arabic; German; Japanese; and Korean. In each of the sections, the authors discuss and illustrate sociolinguistic features, emphasizing in their curricula: "ways and means" of integrating language and culture, student reactions to the teaching of culture; and, finally, suggested sample classroom activities.

ARABIC

The Arabic language is highly influenced by Islamic culture. Even the most elementary and frequent social conventions have their roots in the Muslim religion. To function in an Arab country, Americans must gain understanding of many idioms and sayings of everyday life. The Arabic Basic Course consists of 47 weeks of Modern Standard Arabic followed by 16 weeks of one of 6 dialects: Syrian, Egyptian, Iraqi, Saudi, Yemeni or Maghribi (Moroccan). There are two new sets of texts: 1. "Arabic for Living," 2. "Gulf to the Ocean." These texts are not grammar-based, rather they are culturally and functionally oriented. Right from the beginning, we introduce cultural information in contextual passages and dialogues that are modeled by the teachers, interpreted into English and discussed in the classroom.

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*An extended version of this paper was presented at the ACTFL's 20th anniversary meeting in Dallas, TX, Nov. 21-23, 1986.

Classroom Activities

First, an Arabic name is randomly assigned to each student in order for him or her to practice difficult sounds as well as to get a feeling of the Arabic cultural setting. For example, Sergeant Smith becomes *Sayyid Nuri* and Miss Cates becomes *Aanisa Wedad*. The word *Sayyid* means "Mr." and *Aanisa* means "Miss." We teach students to differentiate in gender between males and females when using the second person, such as the pronoun "you", *anta* (masculine) and *anti* (feminine). When students address the teacher they use the word *Ustaz* (teacher).

Arabs often greet each other warmly and enthusiastically. Simple Arab greetings such as *Marhaba* (Hello) and *Ahlan wa sahlan* (Welcome), are taught during the first meeting with the students. More complicated greetings are taught in lessons one and two. Many of these, though difficult to pronounce, are of cultural value as they are related to Islam. For instance, when students greet in the morning, they learn to say *Sabahil-k[illegible]ir* (Good morning or Morning of goodness). We teach students to respond *Sabahin-nur* (Morning of light). The word *nur* here means "the light of God." In religious terms, finding the light of God is finding the right way. At the same time, students learn the expression *Assalamu-Alykum* (Peace be upon you) which is an international greeting used by Arabs and Muslims at any time of day or night to mean "Hello." In lesson two, we also introduce the phrase *Kaifal-hal* (How are you?) and teach students to respond *Alhamdulil-lah* (Praise be to God).

We prepare our students for cultural differences among the Arab countries. Students benefit from our diverse faculty by learning, informally, various forms of greeting whenever they meet with different teachers. For example, students learn from an Egyptian professor the phrase *Izzayyak* (How is your outfit?). If the listener has not been exposed to this phrase, he or she would be confused thinking that there is something wrong with the way the listener dresses. Likewise, the students are exposed to other dialect forms expressed by other nationalities. The Iraqis say *Ishlounak* (How is your color?); the Moroccans say *Ishakhbarak* (How is your news?); and the Algerians say *Ishrak* (How do I see you?). But the Syrians, Lebanese, Jordanians and Palestinians say *Kief-halak* (How is your situation?) or *Kief-sahtak* (How is your health?). The differences between such

forms become significant when students find themselves in the respective countries.

After a few weeks in the course, teachers start to engage students in cultural activities that include idiomatic expressions and proverbs representing the Arab cultural values of hospitality, generosity and polite eating habits. For example, the Arabic proverb says "The amount you eat is equal to the amount of love you have for us". We teach our students to respond to this manifestation of hospitality by being responsive to the host's invitation. If the guests have had enough to eat, or they are on a diet, they can politely abstain from eating by just sampling the food rather than offending the host if they refuse.

THE AMOUNT YOU EAT IS EQUAL TO THE AMOUNT OF LOVE YOU HAVE FOR US.

We often teach adjectives and other parts of speech through idioms and proverbs. For example, when students learn adjectives "long" and "short" certain Arabic linguistic phrases such as "His tongue is long" may be introduced to practice the word "long" and indicate the cultural meaning (talkative). As a follow-up activity other vocabulary is reviewed, as in the word "tongue." The proverbs "The man is known by his tongue" or "Your tongue is your guardian. If you protect it, it will protect you. But if you betray it, it will betray you." are then introduced. They mean that speech controls human behavior.

To prepare our students for proficiency, our teachers develop their own proficiency-based materials. These include communicative situations dealing with daily life themes, e.g., in a restaurant, a hotel or a post office. Teachers also play vocabulary games with the students. For example, a game called *Souk Ukaz* (The Market of Ukaz) tests students' progress in listening comprehension, spelling, pronunciation and translation. This game is traditionally used for poetry competitions in ancient Arabic literature . In the classroom, it requires that the students formulate new words, phrases or sentences that begin with the last consonant heard in a previous word mentioned by a classmate. Students take turns. Whoever lasts until the end without mistakes is the winner. Advanced students utilize their language abilities in acting on the stage.

Interactive Video

Our supplementation program, "Gulf to the Ocean," uses a laser disc and a Personal Computer (PC). Segments of the video are introduced to students having no previous preparation and no translation is given to the students. A passage based on four lessons is introduced--first, aurally, then visually. Student learning takes place by discovery.

In the structural- global method students are lead from the whole to the parts. The video program has the advantages that: 1. Students work at their own pace outside the classroom. 2. The program gives them an opportunity to build up a reservoir of knowledge. 3. They learn by themselves in a relaxed atmosphere. 4. They do not have to understand this complex situation in one class period.

Generally, when we implement this program, we use the program manual to present each of the everyday life activities. For example, in a situation where our students can get to know each other well in role playing, the following theme of "meeting and greeting" is introduced collectively in lessons 1-4 by four different players. Nabil, who is an Egyptian student in Lebanon, goes to visit his Lebanese friend Marwan for the first time. There, he does not find his friend. Rather he finds his younger brother Khalil, who says that Marwan is at the university. He asks about his sister Zeina, whom he has met earlier, but he is told that she is busy. Classroom procedures go as follows:

1. Students listen carefully to the activity as a whole once or twice without interruptions or questions.

2. Students listen and watch the entire situation.

3. Students listen and watch the dialog of lesson 1. We explain the dialog in Arabic.

4. Students then listen and watch sketches and segments of each dialog. Students role play situations in small groups. Each group acts alone with the help of the teacher.

5. Students review segments on their own during classroom hour.

6. As a follow-up, we give students a recorded audiotape for homework and practice.

Nonverbal Communication:

We teach gestures to convey lexical meaning. This helps a person who has a minimal knowledge of Arabic. Arabs tend to gesture regardless of the intensity of their emotions. The following are some gestures that are likely to be misunderstood by Americans.

1. **Raising eyebrows**: With head shaking sideways means: I can't understand or hear; I don't get it. This happens when a student gives a wrong answer or an unclear response.

2. **Moving the tips of all fingers of the right hand** and pointing upward and accompanying with speech means: wait a minute. This is done when a person has said or read something which is wrong.

3. **Gesturing for "come here"** in Arabic is done through motioning towards the speaker with the whole hand, while it is done in America by waving the index finger. The latter gesture may be considered offensive in the Arab world, since it is generally used with dogs and other animals. This is

particularly important when teaching the imperatives: *come here, go there*, etc.

Student responses indicate that they enjoy the relaxed atmosphere when a teacher stays in the background, only monitoring class activities. Our students value "Arabic for Living" as excellent for speaking because it has many cultural and survival situations that can be used every day. "Gulf to the Ocean" helps the students to develop receptive skills, break away from rote repetition and observe live examples on the screen. Our student feedback about the two programs is very encouraging. Both courses give our students a better understanding of Arabic culture.

To learn more about teaching Arabic culture in the classroom, I would recommend the following references:

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GERMAN

Cultural and sociolinguistic features are introduced and emphasized throughout the German Basic Course. "Culture Notes" containing various aspects of German social customs,

geography, politics, military institutions and history are included in our workbook. The student is asked to read these notes--written in English--at the end of each chapter. Time is set aside in class to discuss the information and, when appropriate, the students are asked to make use of it in role playing, reporting, describing, and related activities.

Introductory Activities

During the first class meeting, the students learn and practice how to address others. For example, with the exception of calling a waitress at a restaurant, they are told never to use *Herr*, *Frau*, or *Fräulein* unless followed by a family name. Students are asked to address each other accordingly during classroom hours. The students also learn that a lady is to be addressed as *Frau* rather than *Fräulein* when her marital status in not known.

In the second lesson, students learn the idiom *Wie geht's* (How are you?) The "Culture Notes" inform them that they may not inquire about someone's well being when meeting a person for the first time. If an American were to follow his social convention of addressing, let us say, a female hotel clerk at the reception counter with *Guten Tag, wie geht's*, he could be faced with an indignant response. A German lady is not accustomed to such inquiry by a stranger. She would usually misinterpret such a question. We also inform the students that hand shaking is done more frequently in Germany than in the United States and remind them that when a German meets someone in the street and shakes hands with him, he intends to stop and chat.

Similarities between German and English may lead to a misunderstanding. For example, when a German asks someone *Haben Sie Familie*? (Do you have a family?), the uninformed American does not necessarily realize that what is meant here is "Do you have a wife, and do you have children?"

It is rather important that the German students learn how to introduce someone to a third person, because a German does not ordinarily walk up to a stranger and introduce himself. Any German who attended a cocktail party in this country for the

first time would discover how awkward it can be when there is nobody there to do the honors. We practice such introductions early in the course.

GUTEN TAG...

We have had rewarding experiences with students in the second week of instruction. The team of five teachers invited three sections (about thirty students) to a one-hour "cocktail party" where only German was spoken. Students had learned how to introduce someone to someone else the day before the "party." Apple juice was served and students from the various sections were to meet. They were asked to introduce a classmate to a student he had not met before and express a personal interest in the newly introduced person by asking questions about him. At the end of the party, after the students had returned to their classrooms, each student was encouraged to tell about the person he had met. This was a truly social event. It was also enjoyable for the students.

Role Playing

We prepared a separate workbook, "Role Playing Situations" which contains fifty situations of everyday life with some guidelines for the teacher. Here is an example of a classroom activity using one of the role playing situations. When one of our students goes to Germany, it may be necessary for him to find an apartment for himself or his family. Using the suggestions in

the role playing book, we assign **Student A** the role of the person who is looking for an apartment. **Student B** has the role of the person at a rental agency or that of the landlord. The scenario is carefully prescribed because we want the student to use particular language forms. We also formulated the individual roles in such a way that an information gap exists between them. **Student A** has a minimum of information before him about the apartment. **Student B** must give a detailed description of it.

Advanced Organizers

We help the students to read rental ads in German newspapers. Current newspapers are distributed to the students. The abbreviations are explained and relevant cultural information is provided. For example, the student must know the meaning of "one-room apartment" in German or what kinds of fees are customary. The teacher then introduces the language forms which the student needs in order to play the role assigned to him. This includes phrases, vocabulary and idiomatic expressions. Before assigning partners for individual practice, the teacher practices with the entire class. During the student/student practice the teacher functions as a facilitator. After a five to ten minute practice--with the new language forms on the blackboard--each student pair acts out the scenario. Students exchange roles in order to allow the practice of all forms by all students. This scenario may become part of the daily quiz the next day.

Eating and Drinking

Any teacher knows that the discussion of food and drink in any culture creates general interest and excitement. We make use of this affective behavior and practice a large variety of language features which easily can be transferred to other contexts.

One could spend a large amount of time on this subject and inform the students of traditions and customs related to the preparation and consumption, for instance, of *Wurst* (sausage). When we quote German proverbs or sayings using the German *Wurst*, the students appreciate the importance of this delicacy to a German. Here are some examples:

Das geht um die Wurst which means "It is a matter of greatest importance to me."

Das ist mir wurst: "That means very little to me."

Beleidigte Leberwurst, refers to a person who easily feels offended.

In der allergrößten Not schmeckt die Wurst auch ohne Brot simply means that sausage is enjoyable even without the accompanying piece of bread.

In summary, in our German Basic Course sociolinguistic/cultural features are an integral part of our daily instruction. In role playing or when performing any other oral tasks, we expect our students to communicate appropriately. We also encourage the students to use previously learned forms in various situations.

JAPANESE

Japanese society is highly stratified. There is usually some distinction in rank between any two Japanese, whether of age, sex, or position of employment. Japanese people also have long avoided making direct and explicit judgments of good and bad. The speaker must consider the other person's social position and try not to hurt his feelings. For that reason, what a Japanese says can very easily be ambiguous to non-Japanese people.

When a Japanese is asked a definite *yes* or *no* answer, and if things do not look too promising, he would probably say, with a hissing sound, *Muzukashii desune* (It is difficult). As stated in *Business Japanese*, published by Nissan Motor Co., (1985), "It is difficult" is, after all, easier on the ear than plain "No" and you, as the guest, must of course be spared the unpleasantness of such an abrupt and clumsy reply.

This tendency to avoid explicit judgments has led to various misunderstandings between Japan and foreign countries. Japanese government officials use "Officialese" which could be translated in one way and means the other. The examples of such officialese are: *Zensho shimasu* which literally means "I will cope/deal with as appropriate" but its underlying meaning is "but it is not so important, so why bother?" (See Katsuya Mogami. 1985. "Administrative Reform on Terminology." *NHK Monthly Report on Broadcast Research*).

Cultural differences are found in the universal topic of eating nd offering food. When an American holds a party, it is very ommon for the host to say to the guest "Please help yourself." 'his sentence, however, could have a rather unpleasant ring in he ears of Japanese who don't know about American customs. 'he meaning, of course, is simple: "Please do not hesitate and ake what you want." but literally translated, as Takeo Doi says n his book *Anatomy of Dependence*, "It has somehow a flavor of Nobody else will help you.' Japanese sensibility would demand hat in entertaining, a host should show sensitivity in detecting vhat was required and should himself 'help' his guests." To eave a guest alone and expect him to know where things are and ielp himself would seem excessively lacking in consideration.

The above stated cultural differences can easily be ncorporated in short plays in Japanese. Since our textbooks do iot have role playing materials included, the teachers have to nake their own plays. It could be time consuming at first, but uckily we have word processors, so developing and modifying he content depending on the students' levels can be relatively easy. For those who need a greater challenge, we recommend)pen-ended role playing. This technique is used in the oral)roficiency interview as well as by the teachers in the classroom.

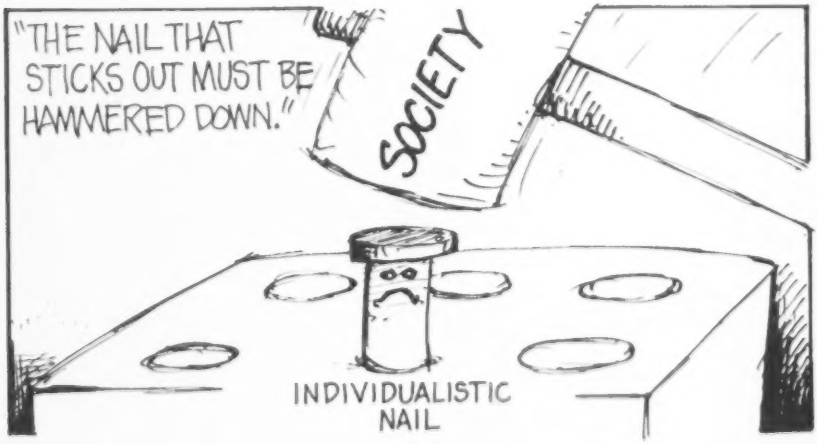
Asking Your Friend To Do Something

> You and I are friends. You want to go to see a movie, but you don't want to go to see the movie alone. Call me and ask me to come with you. (With this kind of role playing, the teacher can control the difficulty of the content depending on the levels of the participating students).

As one of the supplementary materials, we use two kinds of ideotapes; one is educational video aimed at non-native peakers of Japanese, and the other is authentic video such as ramas, news, variety shows, and quiz shows broadcast in Japan. Videotapes are extremely popular among students. The tudent's inputs indicate that videotapes allow them: to listen to onversations between and among natives other than the eachers; to see the actual situations and actions taking place etween the two natives; to observe how the culture affects its anguage; to remember words and patterns more easily; and to nable them to understand the situation without knowing the xact meaning of the words.

Other supplementary materials we use in our department are educational games. Some games are created and/or adapted by the teachers and some are commercial games such as Japanese versions of Monopoly and Trivial Pursuit. They are also very popular among students. The students think using games is very useful because it: 1) allows for real communication (i.e., in order to win you need to communicate), 2) provides a good break from rather dry drill practice, 3) allows students to use the language in a more relaxed atmosphere which is more conducive to the learning process, 4) makes learning more enjoyable, 5) helps to develop an ability to think on one's feet in Japanese, 6) is a good way to review vocabulary and 7) adds variety to the activities.

Teaching students Japanese sayings and proverbs is a very good way to introduce Japanese social values. The following is one example of how the social value is incorporated in the pattern explanation. When students learn a pattern of "to be good at..." (ex. Martina is good at tennis.), they might be exposed to a proverb, *Noo aru taka wa tsume wo kakusu* (The wise hawk hides his claws). Truly gifted persons may try to hide their ability, and also it is considered unsophisticated to praise oneself and show off this ability. Humble attitude is a virtue in Japan. Thus, it is appropriate for speakers to say when they describe their own ability, "I can play but not very well." Another saying which describes the Japanese social value may be *Deru kui wa utareru* (The nail that sticks out must be hammered down).



In Japan where conformity is a very important social value, being individualistic or different from others could be regarded as somewhat negative. It could destroy harmony and invite chaos. By presenting these proverbs and sayings, students are exposed to different social values which could influence the students' choice of words and sentence patterns as well as their behavior.

KOREAN

A person from a Western culture who wants to function in Korean society first has to become aware of the different values, attitudes and norms of behavior. Korean is noted for many speech alternates which have their origin in social structure. Korean culture emphasizes a hierarchical social system with inherent distinctions between high and low, young and old, superior and subordinate. These distinctions are reflected in Korean speech through extensive use of honorifics and numerous noun, pronoun, and verb endings. If one's level of speech does not reflect these differences of hierarchy, the speaker is regarded as rude.

In the Korean Department, cultural and area background information is incorporated into the course and is taught systematically in addition to linguistic features. Not only will a knowledge of "rules of grammar" assist students in learning to speak, but a knowledge of "codes of behavior" will also help a student understand how people from different social groups act. The following are some of the ways these cultural differences are introduced.

Use of Video

In teaching Korean, video is most helpful in developing linguistic skills, particularly the listening skill. Video is also used to heighten awareness of nonverbal signals and appropriate behavior.

Prior to a video session, the students read on the topic they are going to watch. A discussion or a question-and-answer period follows the showing of a videotape. For example, a simple greeting, *Annyong Haseyo?* is said with varying sentence endings--depending on the speaker's politeness and formality toward the hearer--accompanied by an appropriate gesture of a bow or a nod. An explanation of this greeting, *Annyong Haseyo?*, which in English is "How are you/Good morning/Good

afternoon/ Good evening", is given to the students. This greeting carries with it a cultural message, "Are you at peace?" or, "Are you in harmony with others?", and is an expression which teaches a moral aspect of human relations with the ultimate goal of harmony.

Cultural Notes

Together with the cultural notes that are included in each lesson, proverbs, short stories and essays are introduced to the students to make them aware of possible misunderstandings that can arise between the American and the Korean cultures. For example, in order to be deferential to a superior, a Korean will avoid looking directly into the eye of a speaker. Although it may appear to indicate a lack of interest to the observer, it is not a sign that the listener is disinterested in the speaker.

Culture Capsules

Culture capsules in the Korean Department are usually prepared outside of class by a student and presented during class. A culture capsule consists of a paragraph explaining one

ninimal difference between an American and a Korean custom, ılong with a series of illustrative photos or relevant realia. For example, a student would read a prepared statement on the picture in which a youngster is handing something to a teacher with one hand. Subsequently, the student would comment that t is considered discourteous to give anything with one hand to his superior; one has to use both hands.

mmersion Sessions

Recently, we introduced a schedule which includes up to three "Immersion Hours" per day. During such hours, role-playing activities, skits, narration and presentation of materials ake place using only the target language. Playing games in Korean is one of the activities that students find most nteresting. An effective role-playing situation is created when he students are asked to play various members of a Korean family, and each must choose an appropriate speech level and, at he same time, act appropriately. Many skits prepared by the students bring laughter and spark to classroom activities.

Innovative instructional strategies constantly bring together anguage and culture in a proficiency-oriented classroom in the Korean Department.

CONCLUSION

Proficiency in a foreign language is determined in large neasure by the extent to which the student is aware of cultural differences. Communication begins when people meet each other, and the first encounter with the people of a foreign country may well determine the attitudes which a person will develop toward an entire culture. On the other hand, looking nto the eyes of a superior in Korea, the interpretation of a particular gesture in an Arabic country, improper bowing in Japan, not shaking hands at an appropriate occasion in Germany, Austria or Switzerland may well determine what mpressions the student will give to others., We may remind ourselves that the first impression a person makes may be permanent, and we wish to help our students to be accepted abroad.

The examples we have given are intended to be illustrative. The classroom activities involving the practice of communicative skills are as varied as the resourcefulness of the teachers and the students. They can easily be adjusted to the interests and skills of the class.

Graduation is the highlight for our students. A discussion with the students at graduation reveals that there are rewards other than grades or a particular skill level. Students in general are proud of their ability to get along in a foreign language. Also, the students recognize that the world in which they live has become larger because they see it through the eyes of an Arab, a Japanese, a Korean or a German--or any other culture. Moreover, graduating students is rewarding for the teachers because they assisted in their success.

We acknowledge the assistance of:

THE MODERN LANGUAGE JOURNAL

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Department of German
Ohio State University
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REAL LIFE VS. THE CLASSROOM

(ACTFL WORKSHOP REPORT)

Steven Koppány

A two-day workshop, conducted by veteran ACTFL lecturers Vicki Galloway and Isabelle Kaplan, entitled "Planning and Teaching for Proficiency," had as its goal to guide the participants in an examination of classroom learner language development in each of the four skills. Besides theory, there were ample opportunities to participate in group activities that focused on applying concepts of proficiency in terms of classroom instruction and testing, text adaptation, and determining curricular scope and sequence.

Galloway explained that before we can plan and teach for proficiency, we must be able to define exactly what we mean by that term. Too often, she said, "proficient" has been used interchangeably with such descriptors as "fluent" or "good," and only seldom have the really important questions," how proficient?" "proficient at what and in what context?" and "proficient in performing what function?" been asked. Understanding the interrelationship among accuracy, content, context, and function was essential not only for determining the performance profile of an individual, she stressed, but also for design ing effective teaching strategies for the classroom.

According to Kaplan, the proficiency-oriented teacher must also accept a number of basic assumptions. First, that proficiency is observable, and therefore is a measurable phenomenon; second, that it is demonstrated through performance; and third, that although they are closely interrelated, each modality has its own distinct identity.

We all want to bring "real-life" into the classroom, said Kaplan, but in order to be able to do so we must have a clear understanding of how language is used in real life. In real life, language is unpredictable; hence, it demands a great deal of flexibility and adaptability on the part of the user. Language in the real world is culturally appropriate and cultural situations will frequently trigger certain conventions. In real life, she stressed, meaning often depends on the context in which language is used. Accuracy in a real-world environment is not measured by the number of mistakes made, but by the degree of precision and appropriateness with which meaning is conveyed.

Real-life proficiency, Kaplan concluded, requires experience. Language in the real world, she said, is clearly related to background knowledge, which means that we cannot expect mastery of the new without its being firmly "hooked into" the old.

If we are to create real-life situations in class, insisted Galloway, we need to teach real

language. When teaching our students to speak, for example, she claimed, we often forget that people in real life don't always speak in *complete sentences or in imperatives*. They don't repeat things verbatim and occasionally, they even change topics in midsentence. They often speak to more than one person at a time, and they don't always speak face to face. Real-life communication is not always a question and answer type of exchange, and - ideally people don't say meaningless things.

Real-life speech, added Kaplan, is spontaneous and not automatic, as it often is in the classroom. It is interactive--not responsive; creative--not conditioned; involved--not detached; trying--not safe; fumbled--not perfect; dynamic--not passive; negotiated--not predetermined. Hence, from very early on, she stressed, students need to be taught a variety of communicative strategies, including the use of pauses and discourse markers. Teachers, she added, need to make greater use of their students' imagination, creativity, and willingness to take risks.

On the practical side, there were sound suggestions concerning the optimal use of class time, the teacher's role in the proficiency-oriented classroom and curriculum design.

In the classroom, they stressed, every effort should be made to bridge the gap between input and output. Students need to be taught by doing, and they must be given opportunities to use the language in a variety of culturally appropriate contexts.

To this end, the teachers must, at times, be satisfied with partial production and must continually encourage their students to take the initiative. They must be role models as well as facilitators and guides. They must be judicious in correcting mistakes and use only the necessary amount of English in class. When developing exercises and activities, They must always be conscious of their purpose, their cultural authenticity, and the extent to which they reflect real life.

In conclusion, teachers, course developers and curriculum designers must always have some functional ability as their target, and must match linguistic input with the targeted level. They need to address all skills and maximize opportunities for language use. They must "hook" structure into the real world, and subordinate it to real-life functions. In addition, they must continuously consolidate, expand, integrate, recycle and evaluate.

If I were to choose a single word to describe my impression of this year's ACTFL conference, it would be "exhilarating." Not so much because the ideas presented were so radically new, but primarily because of the caring and forward-looking manner in which they were shared. Unpredictability, innovation, flexibility and spontaneity are all words which we normally associate with the creative arts. The new emphasis with which they were

used at the conference in connection with proficiency-oriented planning and teaching provided me with new and exciting evidence that, both in terms of substance and image, our profession is now widely accepted for what it really is: a form of art that imposes no limits on creativity; its ultimate standard is not mere efficiency but excellence

FACULTY SEMINAR AT DLI

The Faculty Seminar sponsored by the Academic Advisory Council took place on Nov. 28, 1986, in Munakata Hall. Despite the fact that it was Friday after Thanksgiving, the auditorium was filled with instructors from many departments. The seminar was moderated by Ms. Brigitte Olson, School of Germanic Languages.

The seminar was opened by the Commandant , Col. Monte Bullard, who talked about the role of professional development for the DLI faculty. Col. Bullard stated that we should all strive to create a genuine academic environment. He said: "Humans must grow intellectually or they will get in a rut." Bullard pointed out that pursuing educational goals will help an individual to become a better teacher, conduct classroom research and share ideas with the profession. He added that he would like for the DLI faculty to demonstrate an intellectual curiosity by enrolling as a minimum in two pivotal courses: graduate level survey of foreign language teaching; and principles and theories of testing. Bullard pointed out that DLI could become an experimental foreign language base for the rest of the country. He said: "I would like to see people from the rest of the country coming down to see how we teach." Col. Bullard stated that the library's collection on foreign language pedagogy is growing. He reminded the faculty that a new library is under construction. Bullard added that he would like to see in it complete sets of textbooks from all over the world.

The next speaker, Provost Ray Clifford, gave a presentation titled "Education versus Training." While discussing the relationship between ideas and policies in an institution, Dr. Clifford contrasted training institutions with colleges and universities. He stated that training institutions usually are regimented and have extensive policies. Colleges and universities, on the other hand, are more concerned with ideas, more tolerant and often view mistakes as learning experiences. Next, the Provost compared the nature and purpose of training policies to educational policies. He stated that a typical university policy on grading might consist of one or two paragraphs, while a training institution's takes 20 pages to explain all the details.

Further, Clifford stated that expertise in the system is at different levels in training and educational institutions; in the former it is at the management level and in the latter--

at the individual level. The Provost emphasized that individuals can make sound educated judgments only when they have a knowledge of methods and techniques of foreign language teaching, as well as an understanding of the pedagogical and linguistic principles upon which they are based. According to Clifford, teachers who have such knowledge are better prepared to innovate and improve foreign language instruction.

Clifford complained that he often has heard a tautological argument that "Good trainers are better than bad educators." He pointed out that it would be more meaningful to discuss good trainers versus good educators. He also added that a good educator may be a very good trainer. However, a training institution needs trainers; an educational institution needs educators. Clifford emphasized that now DLI has the opportunity to become an educational institution. He concluded that the final decision will be made by each member of the faculty and staff at DLI.

Prior to the presentation, the Provost made several announcements. First, he stated that the 1988 ACTFL Conference will take place at the Sheraton Hotel and Doubletree Inn in Monterey. Four hundred DLI employees will be able to attend the conference. Next, he said that preparations are being made to launch a Ph.D. program with Stanford University for DLI employees. Clifford also added that DLI will be a part of the National Center for Language Teaching. Finally, he informed the audience, that Title VI authorizing six Regional Centers for Language Teaching has passed and that DLI also will be a part of the regional center.

The next speaker, Mr. Victor Solntsev from the School of Russian Language, gave a presentation titled "Teaching Strategies for a Basic Course." He discussed the cognitive approach, the role of grammar in foreign language teaching and the transition from control to automatic processing. Next, he talked about the use of English in a Russian classroom. Solntsev recommended that DLI teachers should try to eliminate English from instruction. He suggested that even instructions could be in the target language as a means of eliminating English from the mind of the students. He suggested development of activities which would train the students to think in the target language.

Finally, Solntsev discussed the extent of learners' preparation for a Defense Language Proficiency Test. He suggested that the instructors could prepare students to cope with it by familiarizing them with the format of the DLPT. Solntsev added that he prepared a replica of the Russian DLPT which the students try out before taking the DLPT.

Dr. Gordon Jackson of the Tests and Standards Division gave a lecture/ demonstration on "The Use of TPR (Total Physical Response) in the Classroom." TPR is a comprehension approach to language instruction in which oral production is

elayed approximately 10 - 20 hours while a comprehension base is stablished. Dr. Jackson pointed out hat TPR has been found to reduce tudent stress, accelerate cquisition, result in long-term re-ention and reduce attrition.

Dr. Howard D. Rowland of the School of Middle East Languages gave a presentation titled "Improving Reading Proficiency by means of Translation." First, Rowland reviewed several methods used n teaching reading comprehension. According to him, having all students read the same passage and translate it in writing is the most effective way of teaching reading omprehension. Next, he outlined a procedure for conducting such activity. Finally, he offered teaching ips pertaining to area background nformation and the use of bilingual lictionaries.

In the afternoon, Ms. Donna Marelius of the School of Germanic Languages, Mr. Jad Katrib of the School of Middle East Languages, Mr. Jose Ortiz and Ms. Heidi Johnson, both of DLI in San Francisco, conducted a "Team Teaching Forum." The first speaker, Ms. Marelius, presented advantages and disadvantages of team teaching. She pointed out that although their team was formed by coincidence, they had a successful teaching experience. Next, Mr. Katrib talked about his involvement in team teaching. Then Mr. Ortiz spoke on the impact of team teaching on curriculum development. The last speaker, Ms. Johnson, discussed the effect of team teaching on the departmental organization. She pointed out that team teachers, in addition to teaching, acquire various administrative responsibilities.

All these presentations were very well received and were followed by a number of questions from the audience.

LANGUAGE OLYMPICS*

207th MI Brigade

This brigade developed and applied *Language Olympics* strategy to promote foreign language training. Excerpts from the brigade's internal communications outline the Olympics.

1. The *Language Olympics*, a three day competition, will be held from 17 to 19 June, 1986, at Coffey Barracks.

2. The purpose of the 207th MI Brigade Language Olympics is to:

a. Promote language training within the brigade.

b. Provide soldiers an opportunity to display their skills.

c. Provide a forum for competition within and among the battalions.

*Excerpts from Information Packet, G2/MI Commander's Conference, Fort Huachuca, AZ, 14-17 July, 1986.

d. Create a means to exchange training ideas.

3. Description of the games selected for *Language Olympics*:

a. *Flashcard* is a 50 question event using the Microfix computer. Two contestants from each battalion language team will have 10 minutes to complete as many questions as possible. Previous computer training is not necessary.

b. *Jeopardy* is a three subject event with questions and answers given in English. Subject areas will be military weapons, military vehicles and military uniforms. This event will be played the same as the television show.

c. *Scrabble* wil be played by individuals from battalion teams. The object of the game is to construct words in such combinations so as to achieve the highest score during play.

d. *Verbal Relay* will be played by all battalion teams composed of three soldiers or more. The first team member receives text in English and translates it in team language to the second team member. The third team member receives text in team language from the second team member and translates it in English to the moderator. Points are awarded for the number of Essential Elements of Information passed to the moderator.

e. *Dig It Out* will be played by each battalion team. Contestants will transcribe a fiveminute cut of a commercial radio broadcast. Points will be awarded based on accuracy of transcription.

f. *Get the Point* is a reading comprehension test that will be played by each battalion team. The contestants will have 10 minutes to read the text and answer questions relating to the content of the text. There will be three subject area texts read and questioned.

g. *Handlogging* will be a team event played by each battalion team. After completing a handlog of a 60 second cut of a commercial radio broadcast, contestants will be asked a set of questions. Answers will be based on information in the completed handlogs. Points will be awarded for correct answers.

h. *Password* will be played by two, two-member, teams competing against each other. This event will be played just like the TV show *Password*.

i. *Equipment Dis assembly* will be played by each individual of a battalion team. Players will be required to find, disassemble and assemble an object with all instructions in the team's language.

j. *Get the Picture* will be played by each battalion team using at least two people. One team member gets a cartoon from the moderator and must describe the picture contents in detail in the team's language to his team member. The team member draws the cartoon on butcher paper, with the objective of reproducing the cartoon as accurately as possible.

k. *The Linguist Trot* will be an individual and a team event. Competitors will be required to complete specific tasks at each station along the trail. Instructions on where the next station is located will be one of the tasks at each station. This will be the last event of the Language Olympics. Points will be awarded for completing stations as well as for time of completion.

4. All events except the Linguist Trot will be subject to a 50 minute time limit. The Linguist Trot will have a 2 hour time limit.

5. Points will be awarded in each event as follows:

1st place 5 points

2nd place 3 points

3rd place 1 point

6.Battalions will be competing for the 207th MI Brigade Language Olympics Trophy, to be awarded to the battalion with the highest cumulative point total. Each language team will be competing for a Language Team plaque to be awarded to the team that has the highest cumulative point total in Czech, Russian, or German. All members of the language team with the highest point total will receive either a gold, silver or bronze medal depending on that teams overall standing in the competition. The nature of the competition stresses teamwork over individual achievement. Consequently, although prizes and or trophies will be awarded to best units and teams, there will be no prizes awarded to individuals. However, all competitors will receive a Language Olympics T-shirt, and a certificate signed by the Brigade Commander.

Note: According to Dr. Gerd Brendel, DLI Representative at USAREUR, the three day competition was a very effective activity which could serve as a model for other field units. The idea was developed by senior linguists from the battalions who also served as referees.

DIGEST OF ARTICLES

This section contains summaries of selected articles published recently in the leading journals. The purpose of this section is to share current information pertaining to foreign language pedagogy in a readily accessible form.

Readers of *Dialog on Language Instruction* are encouraged to submit summaries of relevant articles to the editors. For details, see "Information for Contributors."

Wilga M. Rivers, 1986, "Comprehension and Production in Interactive Language Teaching," *The Modern Language Journal*, 70 (3): 1-7.

In this article Wilga Rivers challenges the assumption of the "natural" approach which maintains that prolonged intensive listening without expectations of production for some time is beneficial. Further, she wonders whether the child does learn a language without production for some time as presumed by Asher and Terrell. She points out that first language studies are identifying earlier and earlier infants' attempts to communicate. Rivers believes that it is difficult for a human being to refrain from communication and that only in the most teacher-centered, authoritarian classrooms can one impose silence. Further, she states that interaction between people who have something to share must be kept central if effective language learning, or acquisition, is to take place. Rivers emphasizes that comprehension and production are indissoluble partners in the two way process of communicative interaction. Under comprehension and production she subsumes the associated kinesics and pragmatic rules of conduct within the culture. Rivers points out that although all scholars are interested in preparing students for complete acts of communication, they differ on HOW to prepare students to use a foreign language freely and in a meaningful way.

Rivers compares the original notion of the Monitor as introduced by Carroll to Krashen's notion of Monitor. She points out that in Carroll's theory the monitor had a much more active and continuous role in communication than in Krashen's model. Further, Rivers discusses differences between the processes of listening and speaking. She writes that listeners are guided primarily by the melody and rhythm of the utterance to a segmentation into configurations from which functional relations of noun-verb-noun are extracted (usually subject-predicate-object relations). Unlike listeners who have no control over

the elaboration of speech to which they are attending, speakers control the level of language by their selection of items. Following Bever and Schlesinger, she points out that speakers need grammar to express nuances of meaning whereas listeners may bypass much of it by resorting to semantic strategies. Rivers points out that since the grammar we draw on for effective realtime comprehension is different from the grammar we need to express our ideas explicitly, listening (or reading) will not result in the internalizing of the production grammar we require for speaking (or writing). Yet, Rivers complains, despite our awareness, few materials reflect this phenomenon.

Rivers implies that as a result of improper handling of productive skills some learners become "the terminal two" or "the terminal 1+." She refers to the article "The Push Towards Communication" by T. Higgs and R. Clifford who state that such learners already have acquired fossilized incorrect patterns, which are not remediable.

Finally, Rivers states that the interactive approach is the most appropriate way of balancing comprehension and production. She believes that an interactive approach requires a high degree of indirect leadership, perceptiveness and sensitivity. To find an interactive model, she encourages us to look at the classes where students are interacting not only with the teacher but also with each other and where real messages are shared in an atmosphere of trust and confidence. --L.W.

Nina Garrett, 1986, "The problem with Grammar: What kind can the language learner use?" *The Modern Language Journal*: 70 (2): 133-148.

Nina Garrett writes that the claim that the teaching of grammar is of limited use (or even counterproductive) is the cause of considerable uneasiness in the field today. Some teachers fear that the baby of grammatical competence is being thrown out with the bathwater of the grammar - translation method. Further, she points out that the controversy on the way of teaching grammar splits teachers into two camps: those who insist on a grammatical basis and those who argue against it. While the first may be accused of being old-fashioned and pedantic, the latter may be accused of encouraging "me Tarzan, you Jane" language. Neither camp, according to Garrett, can base their claims on an empirical research.

Garrett proposes that instead of asking how to teach grammar, we should first define the notion of grammar in foreign language education. According to Garrett, the most influential notion states that grammar is a compilation of forms and statements about form-paradigms, lists and word-order rules. In an extension of this definition, grammar implies arbitrary conven tions, the normative rules of "good" language--an utterance must not only convey meaning, but must also do it "correctly." This notion of grammar is implied in admonitions to native speakers such as "mind your grammar!" The author writes that the notion of grammar is also used to

mean analysis of a language system. Here the units of the description are not discrete, formal items but interrelated parts of the system. Garrett concludes that in all these notions, grammar is still seen as an abstract system and as correctness.

The author points out that foreign language edu cators do not always make it clear whether they are using the term *competence* in the Chomskyean sense (i.e. an underlying knowledge or set of intuitions) or in the conventional meaning of skill, capability, ability to do something well. She quotes several different statements on competence, including Chastain's: "(The transformationalists) refer to the ability as competence and to the expression of that ability as performance." Savignon insists "A person demonstrates grammatical competence by using a rule, not by stating a rule." Brown claims "Competence refers to one's underlying knowledge of a system. ...It is the unobservable, idealized ability to do something." Garrett points out that the tendency to equate these two different meanings is the cause of the problem. She writes, "...if competence *were* simultaneously both knowledge and the ability to put knowledge to use, then students who could demonstrate knowledge by scoring well on tests would automatically be able to use that knowledge in speaking--but our dilemma is precisely that they cannot do so..."(Garrett, 137)

Further, Garrett challenges the idea that learners need to learn or acquire linguistic rules to become proficient in a foreign language. She writes that despite the fact that we have no theoretical basis, even Krashen implies that students need to "use the rules" of the acquired language. Garrett points out that when we complain that teaching grammar rules does not enable the students to communicate, we only confirm that abstract descriptive generalizations do not describe the mental process by which a speaker formulates or comprehends any particular utterance. In other words, there is no justification in the equation of communicative competence with the ability to use grammatical knowledge in communication. Garrett suggests that instead of focusing on what mediates between knowledge about the system and utterance, we should focus on what mediates between thought and utterance.

Garrett proposes a set of directions for speaking and understanding a language. According to her, our steps should include: (1) setting up the propositional content; (2) choosing words; (3) selecting an appropriate construction from several discoursal and sociolinguistic options; and (4) articulating the sounds.

Damaging, from a language teaching perspective, is the implication that grammatical labels define usable linguistic categories across languages. In fact, she writes, entirely different relationships between meaning and grammatical category exist even in closely related languages. For example, a certain meaning may be formally rendered with a Nominative construction in English but with a Dative construction in Polish ("The baby is cold." vs. "Dziecku jest zimno.").

Garrett also points out that although the basic associations of meaning and form are established in the mind in very early childhood, the grammatical labels, in contrast, are learned much later, in an analytic frame-work, and are not associated with the actual processing at all. Therefore, Garrett writes, in the foreign language classroom, we cannot assume that once students have been told that a given form, is "used for" the indirect object, or "indicates" a subordinate clause, they need only remember what the form is to have mastered the grammatical point. Garrett concludes that the traditional text presentation of grammar hinders not only students' direct processing but also their realization of how such processing might be undertaken.

Garrett believes that some explicit explanation and drilling of grammar is both necessary and desirable in FL classrooms. She warns, however, that it should not take up much class time. She also suggests that most of the explanation and all the drilling can be done eventually by computer.

Garrett suggests that teachers need to discuss some of the major organizing principles of a language using examples not only from English and our particular L2 but also from many other languages. According to her, some important topics might be:

-What kinds of marking devices does this language use in its code (suffixes, prefixes, infixes, word order, tones, vowel change, etc.)?

-What kinds of meanings have to be grammatically marked?

-What does grammatical case mean? What does it do for a language to have a strongly marked case system? What is the relationship between semantic roles like agent, beneficiary, patient, and grammatical notions like subject and object?

-How are time and aspect divided up in this language? Which grammatical forms express which? How do they interact?

Which grammatical structures operate mostly on a sentence level, and which ones are used to process meaning in larger utterance units or paragraphs (i.e., devices for signalling reference to an earlier sentence, topic/comment, change of subject, etc.)?

Garrett emphasizes that those topics should be dealt with at appropriate points in the syllabus, not in a series of lectures beginning the term. Garrett points out that in introducing any particular grammatical form, teachers can establish its role in processing by: 1) evaluating how directly or unambiguously it reflects meaning; 2) identifying "linguistic complexity" (formal and conceptual). The author exemplifies that in German the concept of "plural" is similar to English while the forms of the German plural are complicated. Thus she concludes that the German plural is *formally*, although not *conceptually*, complex.

Garrett concludes that foreign language teachers should be aware of the processing which mediates between meaning and form in the mind of the speaker, and they should take steps which would enable learners to process a goal language efficiently. --L.W.

REVIEWS

Germany: 2000 Years. Volume 3,*From the Nazi Era to the Present By Gerhart Hoffmeister and Frederic C. Tubach*. 1986. *New York: The Ungar Publishing Company. 251 pp plus bibliography and index. Cost: $24.50 cloth, also available in paperback.*

For serious students of German, Reinhardt's *Germany: 2000 Years*, Volumes 1 and 2, are well known for they represent the companion to German studies . Since most English language books on this subject end at the year 1945, Volume 3 fills a need in the area of German civilization from 1933 to the 1980's. The book deals with the German past and present in five chapters: "The Third Reich," "The Immediate Postwar Years," and "Early Seventies:" "Era of Social Experimentation," and "The Early Eighties." In addition, the book has many illustrations, maps and photographs which are preceded by a preface and an introduction to the Weimar Republic.

One will notice immediately in the introduction a welcome use of German terminology and its meaning given in parentheses. This feature adds considerably to the value of the textbook, for it saves the reader time looking up definitions in the dictionary. Chapter one deals with Nazism in general terms; its ideology, foreign policy, culture, main events of World War II, and exiled German writers. One particular item worth mentioning is the subchapter on German resistance against Hitler, the expulsion of millions of Germans from eastern Europe, and the holocaust. These subjects are sometimes difficult to find in the English language editions of German readers. All of the chapters provide a fundamental overview of main events, names, places, and dates. Another unusual topic of real value is the chapter on equal opportunity at the workplace, which addresses workers' rights in the workplace, women at work, the guest worker issue, and equal opportunity in education.

"German Literature in East and West" describes German Democratic Republic (GDR) literature in passing. Only Christa Wolf is dealt with in some detail. The authors fail to include such writers as: Anna Seghers, Bruno Apitz, Hans Fallada, Friedrich Wolf, Arnold Zweig, Johannes R. Becher, Hermann Kant, Guenther de Bruyn, Jurek Becker, Stephan Hermelin, Dieter Noll, Erwin Strittmacher, Erik Newtsch, Volker Braun and Alfred Wellm. No mention is made of the *Mauerspringer*, writers who either were deported or fled to the Federal Republic of Germany. The authors also highlight certain aspects of German cultural heritage exemplified by the Leipzig St.

Thomas Choir, the Gewandhaus Orchestra, and German galleries in Dresden, Leipzig, Weimar, Berlin, and Frankfort.

This is also a good source book for the German-oriented, foreign area officer trying to gain a better understanding of the common heritage of the two Germanies. For instance, one will find the following topics covered under "East Germany" (German Democratic Republic): attitudes on terrorism; collectivization; common market; a comparison to "West Germany" Federal Republic of Germany); economy; government structure; labor movement; literature; military training; *Passagierscheinabkommen* (Border Passing Permit Regulation); the peace movement and relations with the Federal Republic of Germany.

In summary, the publication of this book is welcomed because it gives a comprehensive overview of German culture. The more interested reader will find many discussion points. For erudite readers, there is a bibliography of 247 references in the back of the book for further studies.

Wolfgang M .L. Maier

Bulletins-Premier Niveau: Sight Readings in French. By Sidney Pellissier and William Flint Smith. Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1985. Pp.vii, 163.

The acquisition of reading proficiency in a foreign language has consistently been a paramount concern of foreign language teachers. Although quite often reading books do not arouse students' motivation there are sometimes exceptions, and *Bulletins* with its successful Spanish pre-cursor *Noticiario* is a recent one.

As the title suggests, *Bulletins* consists of a series of authentic short excerpts of French newsprints.; namely 47 passages ranging from 55 to 224 words (average: 155 words). They are arranged in five groups depending upon the presence of a given grammatical feature, e.g. *the passé composé*. This categorization, however, does not imply the overwhelming use of the introduced tense or grammar item as is the case with so many readers "written for the classroom." In the authors' words, it means that "the shorter and earlier passages within each of the book's five groups of readings can be assigned soon after the corresponding major grammatical components have been presented in the normal curriculum.," (*Bulletins*, p.vi.)

The wide selection of topics helps to stimulate student's curiosity and interest about human and cultural events in the United States and France. Excerpted from a variety of French media sources, the themes encompass show business, *actualités françaises*, humoristic tales, scientific news, linguistic features involving inter-language,

and the world of women in various professional fields.

Each reading is divided into five parts: *clefs, bulletin, intelligence du texte, interprétation et appréciation,* and *exercices*. The text itself is preceded by a chart containing *clefs* destined to open the door to skimming compre hension. A picture illustrates the topic and connects with the title and subtitle of the reading. Potential difficulties are carefully presented in boldface referring to the exercise *intelligence du texte*. The latter provides an opportunity for comprehension of key words in context. In their introduction on "how to use this book" the authors of *Bulletins* suggest eight useful "steps to fluent reading": 1) reading the title and subtitle; 2) making the connection with the illustration; 3) comprehension of the clefs (through the study of synonyms, antonyms and key words and expressions); 4) skimming; 5)) complete reading (along with the completion of multiple choice exercises for the "intelligence" of the text; 6) scan re-reading; 7) multiple choice interpretation exercise; and 8) practice exercises (e.g. true-false, word analogy, word transformation, etc.).

The order of assignment of any of the 47 articles does not need to follow systematically the order of the book's pagination. For instance, the level of difficulty of the passage on page 8 is higher than that of the text five passages-further, on page 24. The shortness of each passage allows for quick completion of the assignment, avoiding painstaking *longueurs*. Two appendices provide information on cultural contents and levels of grammatical difficulty (with indication of grammar elements included). This information facilitates the graded selection task.

Tracy D. Terrell states, "the crucial skill to be acquired is the ability to interpret meaning without understanding all the words and all the grammar elements in the reading passage."(*Dos Mundos*). *Bulletins should be used with this purpose in mind.*

The skills developed by the sight reader are different from those of the beginning student who works through translation. While the latter expresses and clarifies concepts from an English point of view, the former gradually leads her/himself into the linguistic realm of the foreign culture and learns how to interpret meaning with little or no recourse to English.

From the very early stages, reading proficiency is better acquired by working directly in the target language. This contention is based on three premises: a) refraining from translating or using a bilingual dictionary; b) working with authentic target language passages of current interest; and c) selecting familiar topics.

Compared with traditional techniques involving translation, sight reading challenges the learner's ability to develop strategies by confronting the target language directly and independently, by making intelligent assumptions, and

by following step-by-step the clues which lead to decoding the foreign message, thus grasping its gist without referring to one's native language. Sight reading may quickly become a stimulating activity, an intellectual "detective game." Under the guidance of a well versed facilitator [teacher], the student acquires the skills which will enable her/him in the future to handle any unknown text through sight reading approaches.

But perhaps the most significant contribution of *Bulletins* lies in the field of methods of teaching reading. Indeed, it amounts to a teacher's manual in reading proficiency techniques. When adopting the approach provided by Pellissier and Smith, the judicious language instructor will be able to select new press articles of current interest and prepare them by emulating, modifying and ven improving the techniques found in *Sight Readings in French*. On the whole *Bulletins* is to be highly recommended both to the student and the teacher of French.

Réjane G. Moreno.

NEWS AND VIEWS

Letter from Congressman Panetta

November 24, 1986

Dear Editor:

As you already know, I sponsored the Foreign Language Assistance for National Security Act of 1985 (H.R. 3048). The bill was designed to encourage the creation, development and expansion of foreign language programs at all levels. It would have authorized $75 million in aid to states and to institutions of higher education to encourage and enhance their ability to provide quality foreign language training.

Specifically, state educational agencies would compete for grants to fund model foreign language programs on both the elementary/secondary and the community/junior college level. Colleges and universities which have 5% or more of their student body enrolled in language courses and which have foreign language entrance or exit requirements would be eligible for partial reimbursement of the cost of providing that instruction. Furthermore, grants would be awarded on a competitive basis to colleges and universities, or consortia of such, to provide summer languagetraining for both high school students and teachers. Finally, funding would be made available to promote study abroad for advanced foreign language students. Such programs would take place in a non-Western European or North American country, and would encourage the combination of language study with business internships.

As we both know, Americans are increasingly recognizing the importance of foreign language training to national security and international trade. Senator Paul Simon, who sponsored the bill when he was a Member of the House of Representatives in the 98th Congress, introduced identical legislation in the Senate (S. 1631).

You will also be interested to know that I offered some of the key provisions of the Foreign Language Assistance Act as amendments to the Higher Education Act (H.R. 3700). The amendments encourage institutions of higher edcation to enact foreign language requirements and set up "model foreign language programs," authorize funds for summer teacher training institutes, and provide funds to colleges and universities for study-abroad programs, especially those combining academic work with internships in international business.

I was pleased that the Higher Education Act was reauthorized by the House on December 4, 1985 and by the Senate (S. 1965) on June 3, 1986. The Act authorizes $10.2 billion for the higher education

budget in fiscal year 1987. More than 90 percent of the money authorized by both versions of the bill is for aid to students. The rest is aid to colleges for such special purposes as foreign language instruction, with $26.5 million appropriated, and endowment building. Both amendments that I attached to the legislation are included in the Act, with somewhat less emphasis on the business-academic internship program and grants for "model foreign language programs" than originally proposed due to budgetary constraints. The summer teacher training funds were included as proposed.

As you know, I completely share your belief in the importance of foreign language education. I am especially concerned about the national security implications of our present shortcomings in foreign language proficiency. It has been over five years since the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies, on which I served, issued its final report. At that time, the Commission declared that "Americans' incompetence in foreign languages is nothing short of scandalous, and it is becoming worse." Although the situation has improved some-what, we still have a long way to go before we achieve true competence in our foreign language abilities and intercultural awareness.

I believe that it is vitally important that we focus Congressional and national attention on the integral role of foreign language skills in our national security and economic well-being in this increasingly interdependent world. Obviously there is much that can be done to help reverse the alarming decline in foreign language education in this country. I assure you that I will continue to work towards upgrading the status of foreign language and international studies in this country, and completing the process which the President's Commission began.

Sincerely,

LEON E. PANETTA

Member of Congress

To Strengthen the Nation's Investment in Foreign Languages and International Studies

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A project staff at the Association of American Universities has developed, under a contract from the Defense Department, this legislative proposal to create a National Foundation for Foreign Languages and International Studies that would be similar to the National Science Foundation. The report points out that at present there are 196 exchange and international studies programs in 35 departments of the federal government, and that there is little coordination and much duplication and fragmentation among them. Further, while funding for these programs has decreased in recent years, the need for them has increased. As a result, linkages

between universities, government, and business have suffered.

The draft of the proposed legislation would transfer to the new independent National Foundation programs currently administered under Title VI of the Higher Education Act, as well as those of the Soviet-Eastern European Research and Training Act. The sole mission of the new foundation would be to "develop and promote a broadly conceived national policy of support for foreign language, area, and international studies research and instruction" in colleges, universities, and other institutions. Anticipated outcomes include the establishment of academic research centers, projects with business and management students, academic exchanges, the award of fellowships and scholarships, the development of a common metric for language proficiency, and provision of support for library acquisitions. The Foundation, like the National Science Foundation and the National Endowments, would be funded by the annual authorization and appropriations process.

From *ACTFL Public Awareness Network Newsletter*

Bilingualism: The accent is on youth*

Stacy Wells

Like most 3-year-olds, Brian Hwang can't read, can't add up the money in his mother's wallet and can't say what is in the soup he's having for dinner. But the Ithaca, N.Y., child giggles at the stories read to him in Mandarin, counts out 20 $1 bills in English and says his soup is hot in Taiwanese.

The number of American preschoolers like Brian who are learning to speak two and three languages is on the rise because many experts and parents find that learning foreign tongues stimulates a child's mental development. Research has shown that bilingual youngsters are more imaginative, better with abstract notions and more flexible in their thinking than one-language children.

Today, there are at least 1,200 language programs nation wide for children under 6 years old, according to the Center for Applied Linguistics in Washington, D.C. Yet that doesn't come close to satisfying the demand for preschool foreign-language instruction.

Shrinking world

Gunther Brandt, headmaster of the Washington International School, says the most common reason he hears from parents wanting bilingual courses for children is that "the world is getting smaller, and the U.S. is realizing it can't isolate

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any more."

Some parents say they regret not having learned a second language themselves. Others want to share part of their family heritage with their children. Yet many are enrolling their children in classes that have no connection with family roots. In San Francisco, nearly half the 70 preschoolers in the Nihonmachi program are non-Japanese, and more than a fourth of the youngsters at the Chinese-American International School are non-Oriental.

Preschoolers who can speak two languages learn to read more quickly than their monolingual peers, reports Kenji Hakuta, psychology professor at Yale and author of *The Mirror of Language: The Debate on Bilingualism* (Basic Books, 1986). Hakuta says that reading involves the same skills as speaking two dialects. Learning that two sounds are symbols for the same object makes it easier for the child to understand that a printed word is a symbol also.

For years, many parents worried that their children would be confused by absorbing two languages at the same time. However, researchers are finding that those raised in a bilingual home begin to talk a little later but that, once they talk, they show a better understanding of the way language works than other children do.

Bilingual children often mix their languages--something once viewed as a sign of confusion. But studies now show they are using words from one tongue to support and emphasize the other. "They are taking advantage of the richness of the languages," says Hakuta.

Catherine Snow, associate professor at Harvard's Graduate School of Education, studied English-speaking adults and children learning Dutch and determined that if an adult and a child have equal exposure to a second language, the adult will learn it faster. Adults, she says, understand how languages work and have strategies for remembering words and grammar that are more developed than children's.

Peer pressure

Teachers say youngsters have two advantages: They are not inhibited by making new, strange sounds that come along with language training, and if they are exposed to these lessons early enough, children will develop a native accent. Puberty is the generally accepted cutoff point for mastering the subtleties of an accent.

The only drawbacks that experts see in raising a child bilingually are that some might be teased because they're speaking a different language or, if placed in a class with native apeakers, might be intimidated by the fluency of the others.

When Paul Duston Munoz of Silver Spring, Md., was 3, he decided to stop speaking Spanish. He told his mother that he didn't want to be different. Although his mother still speaks to him in his first language,

at age 6 he answers in English. His mother says that the only time he uses Spanish is when he is sick or thirsty at night or to say words that aren't polite in English.

Even if children reject the second tongue, say the experts, early training makes it easier to pick up the same language or begin a new one later.

Nothing in a bilingual education is ever lost, asserts McGill University psychology Prof. Wally Lambert. "It's as though the language is put on ice."

The 1986 CALICO Symposium

A. Allen Rowe

Since CALICO '87 will be held at DLI from April 6 - 10, it is timely to consider a brief review of CALICO history and a summary of CALICO '86.

CALICO Background

In the early 1980's Peter Grune of the Goethe Institute's San Francisco Center was instrumental in organizing a series of Foreign Language Instructional Technology (FLINT) conferences. In September 1982 DLI hosted one of these conferences. Mrs. Minnie Kenny, Deputy Assistant Director for Training at the National Cryptologic School, attended. BYU's Dr. Frank Otto, later Executive Director of CALICO, was also there as a presenter. During the conference, another presenter, Dr. Ed Schneider, an interactive video pioneer and key member of the BYU team which developed "Montevidisco," circulated a list to determine the interest in establishing a foreign language technology consortium.

Mrs. Kenny went away from that conference determined to further the cause of applying technology to foreign language learning. Within less than four months she had organized the NSA sponsored "ET and High Technology" Conference held in Linthicum, Maryland. This was another step on the road toward the creation of CALICO in 1983 with NSA support. CALICO Symposia were held in Baltimore in 1984 and 1985.

CALICO '86

CALICO '86 was held at the U.S. Naval Academy, Annapolis, MD, from 11 - 15 May. The conference focused primarily on technology and applied research, providing a good opportunity for foreign language teaching professionals to get a good look at foreign language technology projects from across the nation.

Participants could choose from among 14 workshops and 98 scheduled presentations organized under the heading of one of CALICO's six special interest groups: Artificial Intelligence (AI), Courseware Development (CD), Foreign Character Fonts (FCF), Interactive Audio/Video (IAV),

Machine Assisted Translation (MAT), and Computers in the Classroom. Each special interest group also organized a one-hour panel discussion. The International Association of Learning Laboratories (IALL) also held its annual meeting in conjunction with CALICO '86. There was a Publisher's Panel for discussion of publication of technology related materials and booths representing 15 exhibitors.

Interactive Audio Video Emphasis

Considering DLI's recent acquisition of interactive video equipment, it is worthwhile to note the emphasis on interactive video observed at CALICO '86. In addition to the Interactive Audio/ Video Special Interest Group panel discussion, three of the 14 workshops and 25 of the 98 presentations involved interactive audio/ video. That represents more than a proportionate share of the overall conference activities and is indicative of nationwide interest in interactive audio and video foreign language learning and instruction.

CALICO '87

It should be noted that CALICO '87 will be the first of the CALICO symposia to be held on the West Coast and represents a unique opportunity for a large number of DLI's faculty and staff to participate.

Computer-Controlled Interactive Videodisc System

E. (Pete) Lallos

DLI acquired in October 1986 sixty-one (61) SONY View 1000 interactive video systems; eighteen are developmental stations, intended for use by course developers, and the remaining forty three are student delivery stations.

The SONY system is essentially identical to the interactive video system the Army is contracting to purchase as the Electronic Information Delivery System (EIDS). It is a modular, microcomputer-driven videodisc information and training delivery system. It can present video and audio instruction, and with its computer system it is capable of managing instructional programs, conducting tests, and delivering technical information in a variety of training situations.

Major components of the system include a SONY 2000 videodisc player, MS-DOS multibus computer, color monitor, light pen, and touchpad interface. The system is IBM compatible and can run most programs developed for use on the IBM. Each unit has two 3.5 inch disc drives, each capable of storing up to about 700kb of information (about 350 single spaced typed written

pages). One can gain random access to any one of 54,000 frames on one side of a disc within one half second.

There are on-going programs in various stages of completion in eight languages (Arabic, French, Italian, German, Greek, Polish, Russian, and Spanish)

Forthcoming Meetings

1987

5-7 **March. Spring Conference of Colorado Congress of Foreign Language**, Fort Collins. *Information* Ron Walker, Executive Secretary; 2312 Valley Forge Court; Fort Collins, CO 80526.

11-14 March. **Georgetown University Round Table on Languages and Linguistics**: "Language Spread and Language Policy," Washington, DC. *I*nformation Peter H. Lowenberg; Chair, GURT 1987; School of Languages and Linguistics; Georgetown University; Washington, DC 20057.

3-4 April. **Conference on Second Language Acquisition, Spanish, Italian and Portuguese**. *Information* Bill Van Patten, 4080 Foreign Language Building; 707S. Mathews; University of Illinois, Urbana, IL 61801.

6-10 April. **CALICO Seminar**, Monterey, CA. *Information* Defense Language Institute (Attn: ATFL-DIN-S), Monterey, CA 93944-5006.

9-12 April. **Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (in conjunction with Ohio Modern Language Teachers Association)**, Columbus, OH. *Information* Gerald L. Ervin, Slavic Languages & Literatures, Ohio State Univ., 232 Cunz Hall, 1841 Millikin Rd., Columbus, OH 43210. Phone (613) 422-6733 or 4398.

9-12 April. **Ohio Modern Language Teachers Association (in conjunction with Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages)**, Columbus. *Information* Robert Novotny, 6317 Austin Dr., Ashtabula 44004. Phone (216) 997-7156.

20-24 April. **American Educational Research Association**, Washington, DC. *Information*, AERA Meeting Coordinator, 1230 17th St., NW, Washington, DC 20036.

28 April-3 May. **Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages**, Hollywood, FL. *Information* TESOL, 201 DC Transit Bldg., Georgetown Univ., Washington, DC 20057.

7-10 May. **Pacific Northwest Conference on Foreign Languages (in conjunction with Washington Association of Foreign Language Teachers)**, Seattle. *Information* Ray Verzasconi, Foreign Languages & Literatures, Oregon State Univ., Corvallis, OR 97331-2289. Phone (503) 7654-2289.

29 June-7 August. **Linguistic Society of America/Association of Computational Linguistics**,

Linguistic Institute, Stanford University, Stanford, CA. *Information*

1987 LSA Institute, Stanford University, Stanford, CA 94305.

16-21 August. **World Congress of Applied Linguistics**, 16-21 August, University of Sydney, Sydney, Australia. *Information* Dr. J. Nivette, Vrije Universiteit, Pleinlaan 2 , B-1050 Brussels, Belgium.

27-30 December. **Modern Language Association**, San Francisco. *Information* MLA, 10 Astor Place, New York City 10003.

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We acknowledge the assistance of:

THE NORTHEAST CONFERENCE ON THE TEACHING OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES.

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Box 623, Middlebury, VT 05753

We acknowledge the assistance of:

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INFORMATION FOR CONTRIBUTORS
SUBMISSION OF MANUSCRIPTS
(PROVISIONAL)

Purpose and Scope

The purpose of this internal publication is to increase and share professional knowledge among DLI faculty and staff, as well as to promote professional communication within the Defense Foreign Language Program.

The success of *Dialog on Language Instruction* depends on your cooperation and support. We encourage you to submit an article, a review, a description of innovative classroom activities, a news item or even a comment on language instruction. Your manuscript may deal with the following areas: (1) instructional methods and techniques; (2) curriculum and materials development; (3) testing and evaluation; (4) implications and applications of research from related fields such as linguistics, education, communication, psychology, social sciences, and other related fields; (5) assessment of needs within the profession.

Articles

Manuscripts should not exceed 20 double spaced pages. They should be accompanied by an abstract and a list of references. The abstract of not more than 200 words should identify the purpose of the article, provide an overview of the content, and suggest findings.

The list of references should be submitted on a separate page of the manuscript with the centered heading: REFERENCES. The entries should be arranged alphabetically by surnames of authors. The sample list of references below illustrate format for bibliographic entries.

> Harris, David P. 1969. *Testing English as a Second Language*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.
>
> Dulay, Heidi and Marina Burt. 1974. "Errors and strategies in child second language acquisition." *TESOL Quarterly* 16 (1):93-95.

Reference citations in the text of manuscripts should include the name of the author of the work cited, the date of the work, and when quoting, the page numbers on which the material that is being quoted originally appeared, e.g. (Jones 1982:235-238). All works cited in the manuscript must appear in the list of references, and conversely, all works included in the list of references must be cited in the manuscript.

Footnotes should be used for substantive information only and each footnote should be typed directly below the line to which it refers. They should be numbered serially throughout the manuscript and each one should be set off from the text with a horizontal line above and a horizontal line below.

Faculty Exchange

This section provides an opportunity for faculty to share ideas through brief articles up to two double-spaced pages on innovative classroom practices, such as suggestions on communicative activities, team teaching, use of media and realia, and adaptation of authentic materials. Each sample of a model classroom activity should state the purpose, provide instructions and, if applicable, give supporting texts or illustrations.

Reviews

Manuscripts should not exceed two double spaced pages. Reviews of textbooks, scholarly works related to foreign language education, dictionaries, tests, computer software, videotapes and other non-print materials will be considered for publication. Both positive and negative aspects of the work(s) being considered should be pointed out. The review should give a clear but *brief* statement of the work's contents and a *critical* assessment of contribution to the profession. Quotations should be kept short. Do not use footnotes. Reviews that are merely descriptive will not be accepted for publication.

News and Views

Manuscripts should not exceed one double spaced page. Items related to language instruction such as reports on conferences, official trips, official visitors, special events, new instructional techniques, training aids, or materials, research findings, news items, etc., will be considered for publication.

Specifications for Manuscripts

Manuscripts should be typed on 8 1/2 x 11 inch paper, double spaced, with margins of about 1 1/4 inch on all four sides. All pages should be numbered consecutively. Each manuscript should be submitted in three copies. The first page should include only the title and the text. It is recommended that passages or quotations in foreign languages be glossed or summarized.

Authors are encouraged to prepare their manuscripts on the new word processors (Xerox Star) which are now available in all Schools and Directorates. When the Xerox Star is used authors should submit both a floppy disc and a hard copy (paper) of the manuscript.

All materials submitted for publication should conform to the *Publications Manual of the American Psychological Association* or to the "Guidelines for the Preparation of Manuscripts" which appears annually in the *TESOL Quarterly*.

Review Process

Each manuscript will be evaluated anonymously by at least two foreign language educators. To assure anonymity, authors should not put their name on submitted manuscripts, but should include a 3" x 5" card listing the title of the manuscript, author's name, department/division and telephone number.

Correspondence

Submit your correspondence and manuscripts to the Editors of *Dialog on Language Instruction*, ATTN: ATFL-DPL, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006.

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Dialog on Language Instruction

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December 1987 Vol. 4, No. 2

DEFENSE LANGUAGE INSTITUTE
FOREIGN LANGUAGE CENTER

DIALOG ON LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

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Dialog on Language Instruction

Volume 4, Number 2 December 1987

CONTENTS

GUEST EDITORIAL iii
Ray T. Clifford

FROM THE EDITOR... iv

ARTICLES

Avoiding Fossilization in Communicative Approaches 1
Tracy David Terrell

Teaching Reading in the Foreign Language Classroom 23
Heidi Byrnes

FACULTY EXCHANGE

Interview with Robert M. Gagné 36
Lidia Woytak

Teaching without Texts 43
René de Barros

Trivial Pursuit as a Language-Learning Game 47
William M. Bueler

Coming of Age (TESOL Conference Report) 53
Deanna Tovar

REVIEWS

Language Competence: Implications for National Security 62
Kurt E. Mueller
Reviewed by *John B. Goodrick*

A Thousand and One Nights 64
Michel Nicola
Reviewed by *Michel Nasr*

NEWS AND VIEWS

Letter from a DLIFLC Graduate 66
Foreign Language Materials at CAL 68
Forthcoming Meetings 70

CONTRIBUTORS 71

INFORMATION FOR CONTRIBUTORS 72

GUEST EDITORIAL

Dialog on Language Instruction is intended as a forum for faculty members and others to share their ideas and experiences on language learning. This issue of *DLI* continues to fulfill the promise its title implies. Within its pages the reader will find not only ideas on foreign language instruction, but also disagreements on how to best provide that instruction. Varying perspectives are to be expected in any professional field, and differences of opinion are indeed beneficial. The one thing all professionals within the field of foreign language teaching can agree upon is that the perfect instructional program--one which can be applied by any teacher, with any student, in any setting--has not yet been developed.

It is therefore a professional imperative that we continue our quest for excellence in foreign language teaching. This means searching, listening to others' ideas, testing concepts and approaches, and retaining in our pedagogical repertoire those concepts, techniques, and strategies which work. As professionals at DLIFLC we are fortunate to be fully immersed in our field, and can look forward to the daily challenges of working in an institute where language instruction is our only business.

Sometimes, however, the same enthusiasm and exuberance which makes us successful as language teachers can lead to pendulum-like swings from one bandwagon teaching method to another. Of course this state of reaction and counter reaction is preferable to a state of inaction and stagnation, but our professional efforts would be even more productive if we were better at defining the teaching methods we use. This criticism can be applied to both the producers and consumers of publications on foreign language teaching. If the author of an article fails to provide adequate operational definitions, then the consumers of professional literature must be extra cautious in interpreting that article. It is fairly obvious, for instance, that the term "communicative competence" does not mean the same thing to all authors who have written on the subject. Furthermore, when discussing teaching issues, the often subtle distinction between "what" and "how" can be critical. The current discussion about the teaching of grammar, for example, is often clouded by a failure to separate the question of whether to teach grammar from the question of how to teach grammar.

Increased attention to operational definitions can make our professional dialog more efficient, but it is the dialog which is crucial. The sharing of ideas (even if we occasionally miscommunicate) is an essential component of our quest for excellence. Let's keep the dialog going--not just within the pages of *DLI*, but within and across departments at *DLIFLC*.

Ray T. Clifford

FROM THE EDITOR . . .

The previous issue which established *Dialog on Language Instruction* as a new vehicle for professional communication within the Defense Foreign Language Program was well received. Both laudatory comments and suggestions were appreciated.

We begin this issue with a guest editorial which reminds readers about the nature of professionalism and the role of professional literature. We have two major articles resulting from the DLIFLC/ACTFL Master Lecture Series which has been an important part of our professional development program for many years.

Tracy Terrell's efforts represent a rare combination of a paper evolving from several presentations followed by various versions each of which included previous discussions and exchanges of correspondence as part of an ongoing debate. Thus, we have the benefit of much refinement and sharpening of the issues that arise from comparing the role of grammar with either a communicative-oriented emphasis or with an accuracy-oriented emphasis in communicative language instruction, as well as from attempting to identify some of the causes of a terminal profile of fossilized communicative ability at the various levels of proficiency. Is the natural acquisition process suitable for effective classroom instruction or does it inevitably lead to low proficiency terminal profiles?

Heidi Byrnes brings into sharp focus both old and new issues about the relative role and efficacy of teaching reading skills in relation to other language skills. She clarifies new insights into the process and nature of reading, especially as part of a communicative curriculum. She provides recommendations on selection of texts and strategies for instruction, as well as summarizing many effective classroom activities for the improvement of foreign language reading instruction.

The **Faculty Exchange** section includes an unusual interview with the renowned educator Robert Gagné on how his ideas and theories on learning outcomes relate to foreign language instruction. Our own faculty have also contributed reports on results of a classroom experiment, how a popular game was adapted for productive classroom use, and a fully documented account of several sessions at the 1987 TESOL Conference.

The **Review** section contains a provocative review on the subject of language competence as a national security asset and a review of a supplementary reading text in Arabic.

Avoiding Fossilization in Communicative Approaches*

Tracy David Terrell

1. INTRODUCTION

Theodore Higgs and Ray Clifford in a paper titled "The push for communication" (Higgs and Clifford 1982) make a number of proposals for the teaching of foreign languages concerning the relative importance of components in a foreign language course, and in particular the role of grammatical accuracy in early stages of language instruction (1982:74). These recommendations are based on their experiences with students who apparently reach a particular plateau in their foreign language studies and then find it difficult to make further strides toward the level of proficiency of native speakers. Higgs and Clifford claim that students who develop functional levels of communicative ability based on a low level "interlanguage" in which simplification strategies predominate, will later find it difficult, if not impossible, to replace this sort of speech with more complex speech containing grammatically correct forms (1982: 67-68, 74). They term this condition a "terminal profile" and advise foreign language instructors to reconsider the roles of communication and accuracy in a foreign language course.

In addition, Higgs and Clifford also point out on a more general level that, in making decisions about the role of accuracy in course planning, many of us in the foreign language profession have not looked carefully at purposes for learning the target language and the contexts in which the students will use the language they study. They note the "...apparent assumption that the same communication skills that allow one to obtain food in a restaurant would also serve to negotiate a business contract or an international treaty" (1982:59).

The Higgs and Clifford paper appears to have been written in reaction to early work on communicative competence such as Savignon's 1972 work with foreign language communicative activities.

*This is a revised and enlarged version of a series of talks given at the Defense Language Institutes in Monterey, San Francisco and San Antonio. I am grateful for comments from Ray Clifford, Theodore Higgs, Kerry Kilorn, Stephen Krashen, Leonard Newmark, Bill Van Patten, and Wilfred Voge.

They particularly were bothered by methodologies which "...lead the students too rapidly into the 'creative aspects of language use'" (1982:74). According to the authors, "...the premature immersion of a student into an unstructured or 'free' conversational setting before certain fundamental linguistic structures are more or less in place is not done without cost" (1982:74). Apparently they believe that such methodologies and techniques may be used without taking into consideration the level of skills the students may need and without realizing that such techniques may lead to what they call the "terminal profile."

Unfortunately, this article appeared in print just as a number of communicative approaches, many proposed much earlier, began to be adopted by some American foreign language instructors. The result has been that the article has been perceived as an attack on communicative methodologies in general and a proposal to return to accuracy-based instruction complete with direct, interruptive error correction and a focus on the learning of basic structures before attempting any sort of "free" communication.[1] It is this latter, quite prevalent, interpretation of the Higgs-Clifford proposals I will argue against in this paper.

Both of the points made by Higgs and Clifford, I believe, are well taken. However, instructors who use communicative techniques and/or methodologies can affirm that their students have made great gains in ability to understand and speak the language they study. Even more important, in my mind, are the gains made on the affective level: most students and instructors enjoy communication-oriented language classes more than those based on methodologies which stress the "over-learning" of grammatical forms and structures as a prerequisite to communication. Thus, while it is true that the relative weight given to the various components of a course and the emphasis put on the development of accuracy in both listening and speaking skills should depend on the uses to which proficiency in the target language will be put, and certainly instructors will want to avoid using techniques which will lead to the terminal profile problems experienced by some students, we would not wish to "turn back the clock" losing the breakthrough and advances made with communicative methodologies. In addition, I do not believe that their specific proposals for the structuring of foreign language courses are warranted by either their observations on the level of communicative competence required by different language functions and contexts or by the "terminal profile" problem they point out.

In this paper, I will argue, that communicative methodologies do not necessarily, or even customarily, lead either to low levels of accuracy and inability to interact in communicatively complex

situations or to terminal profiles. I will argue that at least one of them, the Natural Approach, a communicative approach I first proposed in Terrell (1977) recommends specific mechanisms which attempt to avoid the terminal profile problem. In a follow-up paper, I will deal with what I believe to be a more general manifestation of the terminal profile problem, namely, "fossilization" and will try to draw some conclusions as to its cause and possible remediation. First, however, let us turn to a very brief examination of some of the previous research on the general issue of fossilization.

2. FOSSILIZATION

Selinker (1972:225) mentions fossilizable linguistic phenomena in the learner's interlanguage: "...linguistic items, rules, and subsystems which speakers of a particular NL will tend to keep in their IL relative to a particular TL, no matter what the age of the learner or amount of explanation and instruction he receives in the TL." Selinker focusses on how to predict which items in which interlingual situations will be fossilized and why some learners fossilize and others do not.

The explanation of Virgil and Oller (1976:281) for fossilization is the lack of negative feedback: "Expected negative feedback on the cognitive dimension of language usage is the principal destabilizing factor in the development of learner grammars. When the configuration of feedback to the learner becomes predominately expected positive feedback on the cognitive dimension, it is predicted that the learner's level of proficiency will tend to fossilize." [2]

Selinker, Swain and Dumas (1975:140) claim that rules may fossilize in two cases: "...when the second language acquisition is non-simultaneous (with the acquisition of L1) and also when it occurs in the absence of native speaking peers of the target language." [3]

Schumann (1975b:viii) claims that fossilization, which ultimately stems from what he calls pidginization, is directly controlled by socio-cultural variables. Schumann says that "Pidginization occurs when a language is restricted to the communication of denotative referential information and is not used for integrative and expressive functions. Restriction to the communicative function results from the learner's social and/or psychological distance from the target language group." Schumann goes on to propose the acculturation hypothesis (Schumann 1978) in which fossilization is directly controlled by the cessation of the learner's acculturation into the target society.

Scovel (1969, 1976, 1977) focuses on the source of fossilization and argues in favor of the view that individuals who begin to learn the TL after the time of puberty will always experience permanent

fossilization far from TL norms. Scovel claims that this is due to a loss of brain plasticity associated with advancing age.

This brief overview shows that there have been at least five possible sources of fossilization posited by researchers: (1) transfer from the native language, (2) lack of negative feedback, (3) lack of a native speaking peer group, (4) lack of acculturation, (5) lack of plasticity in the brain of adult learners. I will return to these claims in the paper mentioned earlier on fossilization. For the purposes of the present paper, it is sufficient to say that the five are not necessarily mutually exclusive and, as we shall see, Higgs' and Clifford's recommendations appear to be based on the "negative feedback" argument. I argue later in this paper that the lack of negative feedback is not the source of a terminal profile, and that in fact Higgs and Clifford in their advice to avoid putting the students in situations in which they must communicate using language they can not possibly have had a chance to acquire, have pointed out the principle mechanism for both the terminal profile and fossilization.

3.THE TERMINAL PROFILE PROBLEM

Higgs and Clifford base most of their methodological and curricular recommendations to foreign language teachers on an analysis of students who suffer from the so-called "terminal-2" problem.[4] As we have seen in the previous section, this particular terminology is a DLI specific application of the more general problem of fossilization. The facts according to Higgs and Clifford are as follows: there are some students in government language training programs who seem unable to progress from a level 2 or 2+, which is a comfortable level for most daily interactional needs, to a 3 or 3+, which is the level required for professional interaction in the target language. More specifically, they claim that what they call "fossilized incorrect patterns" (1982: 67), that is, incorrect forms and structures, presumably result from simplification strategies used by certain learners while trying to communicate with native speakers at a time when the learners have acquired very little of the target language. According to Higgs and Clifford"...such fossilized patterns are typically not remediable, even in intensive language training programs or additional in-country living experience" (1982:67). The combination of high ability to function in the target culture with low levels of grammatical accuracy is called a "terminal 2/2+," using the familiar FSI 0-5 scale of oral proficiency, or more generally, a "terminal profile."

Sources of the terminal profile Higgs and Clifford claim that terminal profile students apparently arise from one of three contexts: those students who acquired the target language without any formal instruction in a natural acquisition environment, those who had

instructors with low L2 skills, and those who studied in programs which put little emphasis on grammatical accuracy. In this section, I will comment informally on these claims about the sources of terminal profile students and reject two of the three.

Let us consider the claim I believe to be correct: learners who acquire the target language without formal instruction by using it for communication in a natural acquisition environment may develop terminal profiles. First, I should state that my experience with such students is very limited. I have taught several students in advanced Spanish classes who "picked up" Spanish entirely through communicative experiences while living in a Spanish speaking country. All of these students had acquired the target language quite well, and they experienced little difficulty in correcting the few remaining incorrect patterns they had erroneously acquired. None could have been classified as exhibiting terminal profiles. On the other hand, I have spoken with many non-native speakers of English who regularly use incorrect patterns when speaking English.[5]

These and other informal experiences mainly with learners of English support Higgs' and Clifford's assertions: such "terminal profile" learners are almost always those who have relocated to an environment in which the target language is spoken and have used it successfully for a large number of years. For some learners the target language even becomes the primary language for communication and the native language is no longer used extensively.

On the other hand, although the sort of fossilization described by Higgs and Clifford certainly is very common, it should not be presumed, nor do I believe that Higgs and Clifford are trying to imply, that all learners who simply "pick up" a language through communicative experiences necessarily acquire large numbers of incorrect fossilized structures and later exhibit a terminal profile. I am at the present time looking in some detail at two cases of native speakers of English who have successfully acquired Spanish in the Dominican Republic without instruction and grammar study of any sort. Both subjects are married to Dominican men and in addition to using Spanish on a daily basis outside the home also use Spanish at home with their spouses and in the case of one of the informants even with her children. Although their Spanish is by no means perfect, they communicate quite well on a professional level (both are at least 3+). Preliminary investigations reveal, however, that certain, more complex structures, are apparently successfully avoided in normal conversation.

In any case, it is clear to me that one of the sources for the terminal profile is, as Higgs and Clifford suggest, the group of learners who have used a reduced version of the target language successfully for

many years in a natural acquisition environment. I have no idea what proportion of "natural" acquirers fossilize far below native speaker levels, but for the purposes of this paper, it is not necessary to show that the terminal profile is even the norm for naturalistic learners. Rather it is enough to recognize that such learners do exist and that the phenomenon is not uncommon.

Higgs and Clifford also believe that there are at least two other circumstances which lead to a terminal profile: "...the terminal cases whose foreign-language background had included only an academic environment all came from language programs that either were taught by instructors who themselves had not attained grammatical mastery of the target language--and hence were unable to guide their students into correct usage--or by instructors who had chosen not to correct their students' mistakes for philosophical, methodological, or personal reasons" (1982: 68). I will argue that there is at present no convincing evidence for either claim.

Higgs and Clifford, themselves, do not present any evidence for either of the two purported sources for terminal profiles.[6] Presumably, it would indeed be difficult to attain high levels of grammatical accuracy from instructors who themselves are not proficient in the target language, if the instructors were the only, or even the principal source of comprehensible input. However, it is difficult to maintain the hypothesis that having been taught by a less-than-proficient instructor results in a terminal profile, dooms one to ever attaining high levels of accuracy. This unfortunate state of affairs would most certainly apply to many foreign language students in the United States (and I suspect also in the world). It certainly is the case for students of English around the world who begin their study of English in primary schools, usually with teachers whose oral command of English is neither fluent nor accurate, and many of these students will go on to become very proficient speakers of English.[7]

The claim that terminal profile students result from programs or methodologies which do not correct student speech errors is difficult to evaluate, since it is not clear what sorts of instructional methodologies or philosophies the authors are referring to in the second part of this claim or even could have referred to in 1982. Even in Savignon's first experiment with communicative language teaching in 1972, only one day per week in a college level French class was devoted to communicative activities, perhaps a controversial position for 1972, but hardly innovative in 1982 when the Higgs-Clifford paper was published! The title of the paper and the discussion implies that the reference is to "communicative" methodologies in general and certainly,

as I have said, the foreign language profession has taken it to refer to any methodology which does not stress accuracy from the beginning [8]

Although communication-oriented methodologies were quite commonly used in Europe and even in this country in English-as-a-second language classes, when the Higgs/ Clifford paper was written, they are only now beginning to be adopted by foreign language instructors in this country. Thus, it is doubtful that the students of government programs who may have been tested by Higgs and Clifford could have received the kind of training they describe.

Thus, unless more evidence is forthcoming, for the present I will accept the contention that a terminal profile is a possible (but not inevitable) result of untutored acquisition in a natural acquisition environment, but not necessarily common in classroom instruction.

Remediation of a terminal profile Higgs' and Clifford's claim that students with fossilized patterns are not usually able to overcome them even with extensive formal training, hence the word "terminal" in the phrase terminal profile. This claim is possibly the most important in the paper, since it provides the justification for their recommendations to language instructors. As I said, I have not had extensive experience with such students, but certainly it seems to me to be reasonable that learners who have communicated successfully for many years with a reduced form of the target language would have tremendous difficulty in improving their grammatical accuracy in casual speech even with intensive training and high motivation.

There are two major questions which arise from Higgs' and Clifford's observation: (1) How long does it take for irreversible fossilization to set in? (2) How much language training would it take to correct these patterns? Certainly, if it takes five years or more of daily interaction in the target language for fossilization to take place, then the entire Higgs/Clifford discussion is probably irrelevant to most foreign language teachers in this country. On the other hand, it may be that to remediate certain kinds of fossilization may take more instruction or perhaps simple more experience. VanPatten (1987) argues that what many have considered to be irreversible fossilization may be actually "plateau-like effects." It is possible then some learners who use what appears to be fossilized structures may experience a surge of acquisition later. However, even if VanPatten is correct, there will still remain many cases of learners who have had almost a lifetime of comprehensible input and who still use speech fossilized at low levels of grammatical accuracy.

In summary then, I am not convinced that Higgs' and Clifford's analysis of either the sources nor the prognosis of students who exhibit terminal profile syndrome is accurate. I do not believe that there is

compelling evidence that either instructors with low level target language skills or communicative-oriented methodologies are major sources for students with a terminal profile. Nor am I convinced that patterns of errors which have been acquired in the classroom are impossible to remediate. What is clear, however, is that a problem does exist, there are indeed adults who acquired a language in a natural acquisition environment and who customarily use speech which contains fossilized structures. And I do agree that we as language instructors should try to determine what causes fossilization in order to avoid doing anything in class which would promote or encourage it.

4. METHODOLOGICAL RECOMMENDATIONS

Higgs' and Clifford's recommendations for avoiding the terminal profile problem fall into two general categories which I will paraphrase as follows: (1) emphasize linguistic accuracy from the beginning of language study and (2) avoid free conversation before fundamental linguistic structures are acquired. I will argue that both proposals are fundamentally flawed and that this approach to the terminal profile problem leads them to make other rather strange recommendations.

Higgs and Clifford are not just claiming that an early insistence on grammatical accuracy in students' speech will lead to more accurate speech. They make the much stronger claim that students who do not have the benefit of such concern on the part of their instructors may be "condemned" to a terminal performance profile.

> Let us consider the question of program objectives. It sounds reasonable to argue that since we're going to have the students for only a limited time, and since they're not likely to become genuinely fluent speakers of the target language as a result of our program alone, then it's better to provide them with what they'll be happy with, what they can probably handle with relative ease, and with what our staff can reasonably be expected to deliver in the time available. Yet, what sounds so reasonable may in fact condemn the student client to a proficiency level far below the one to which he or she aspires (Higgs and Clifford 1982:75).

And particularly irritating to those professionals involved with the development of methodologies and materials for communicative approaches, they go on to hint that the choice of methodologies which do not stress immediate grammatical accuracy may involve issues of "professional ethics."

> What is at issue is whether we opt for a program that produces a terminal 2/2+ or for one that produces a 2/2+ capable of going on under different circumstances--intensive instruction, foreign study or residence--to become a 3, a 4, or in rare cases, even a 5. Viewed in this light, matters of public relations or short-term effect on student motivation take on a different cast, and the complementary notion of professional ethics moves into the foreground (Higgs and Clifford 1982:75).

Finally, they resurrect the old suggestion of operating with a "two-track" curriculum.

> What may be needed is a two-track curriculum, with an unabashedly communicative syllabus for students whose terminal objective is to function marginally well in the target language, and a linguistic competence tract for those who aspire to using the language professionally... The danger in the two-track approach, of course, is that a student who completes "the communication track" and has become genuinely excited about the target language may find it impossible to switch over. Evidence suggests that four semesters of instruction are enough to produce a terminal profile, and the time needed may in fact be even less than that. And the bottom line might be that the students' ability to communicate would not be materially better than if he or she had taken the other track from the beginning (Higgs and Clifford 1982:75-76).[9]

The suggestion that free conversation be avoided until basic structures have been acquired is not new. It is one of the basic tenets of grammar-translation, audio-lingual and the cognitive approaches and was probably held by most foreign language instructors in North America before the advent of communicative approaches. Indeed the position of all communication-oriented approaches I am familiar with is that grammatical forms and structures are acquired only through participation in communication activities, not prior to them.

It would be impossible to examine all extant forms of methodologies which are in opposition to these recommendations. However, let us now turn to one specific "communicative" methodology I am familiar with, the Natural Approach, and examine certain characteristics which are designed to develop communicative

competence with the purpose of ascertaining what the effects of these same characteristics might have on the terminal profile syndrome.

5. NATURAL APPROACH

Natural Approach (NA) is a communication-oriented methodology which is designed to introduce beginners to a second or foreign language.[10] The goal of NA is that language students be successful in communication interactions with native speakers of the target language and that they have a positive attitude toward the learning experience and the learning of languages in general.[11] The level of proficiency to be attained depends on the particular goals and needs of the students. The controlling methodological characteristic of NA is the provision for comprehensible input and opportunities for low-anxiety interaction in so-called "stages" of acquisition. Because of the emphasis on low-anxiety and the desire to focus on the communication of messages, NA recommends that the oral output of students not be corrected directly by the instructor, who is to attend to the message the students are attempting to convey. Correct forms and structures are usually available to the students in the follow-up and expansion. In this sense, NA is in direct opposition as a methodology to Higgs' and Clifford's advocation of "accuracy-first" programs (1982:74).

The provision for "stages of language acquisition" in which different techniques and materials are used at different acquisitional stages is perhaps the methodological tenet most characteristic of the NA. Consequently, there exist teaching techniques for beginners in three stages of linguistic development : Stage I, the Comprehension (or pre-production), stage in which learners need not use the target language to respond, Stage II, Early Speech (or early production), in which learners are encouraged to participate in target language interactions using minimal (usually one-word) responses, and Stage III, Speech Emergence, in which students are encouraged to respond with longer (sentence level) utterances. NA is concerned mainly with methodology for beginners since students beyond FSI 1+ will have widely varying goals and no one methodology, or even approach, is likely to be applicable to all students.

6. NATURAL APPROACH AND THE TERMINAL PROFILE

Certainly no communicative approach is interested in students speaking the target language with low levels of grammatical accuracy, NA being no exception. On the other hand, proponents of all approaches aimed at foreign language instruction in the United Stated would be delighted to be able to claim to produce students who function at the FSI 2+ level of proficiency after one or two years of secondary or college level instruction. There are two potential areas of conflict between the NA methodology and Higgs' and Clifford's recommendations to foreign

language instructors. One lies in NA's refusal to accept the implementation of accuracy-first courses and thereby recognizing error correction as a primary, or even secondary, means of acquisition of correct grammatical patterns. The other is the extensive use of communicative activities in which the focus is on meaning rather than form. According to Higgs and Clifford both practices may lead to the terminal profile they consider to be so undesirable. I will argue, however, that error correction plays no role whatsoever in the development or avoidance of the terminal profile and that the mechanism of "stages of acquisition" guards against exactly the sorts of excesses in communicative activities Higgs and Clifford justifiably reject.

Accuracy-first courses Higgs and Clifford contrast "communication-first" with "accuracy-first programs" (1982:74). They claim that students in the former are "...either unsuccessful at increasing their linguistic ability or tend to show improvement only in areas in which had already shown high profiles." Students in accuracy-first programs "typically show the opposite prognosis."

There is no evidence that I am aware of, either in the Higgs-Clifford paper, nor in my own experience, that a communication-first course will necessarily, or even customarily, lead to a terminal profile, nor for that matter that an accuracy-first track or one which avoids communicative activities before the "fundamental linguistic structures are more or less in place" (1982:74) will guarantee that one will be avoided. Indeed the original impetus for communicative approaches both in Europe and the United States was the clear failure of approaches which are organized around a grammatical syllabus and which emphasize linguistic accuracy at all stages to produce even the most minimal of communicative competence. Four college semesters of accuracy-first instruction, as was so common in foreign language programs in the past, usually result in almost no communicative competence at all (at most an FSI 0+ or perhaps an FSI 1), and surprisingly little grammatical competence. Indeed I have met not a small number of foreign language majors, and even teachers, who had participated in grammar-based programs which stressed accuracy, and who, after four years of instruction, barely reach 1+ levels.

Let us now examine the role of error correction and more generally the issue of the fossilization with incorrect forms and structures. Although Higgs and Clifford do not themselves recommend direct interruptive error correction, it is my impression that this is the practice most commonly associated with accuracy-first programs.

Higgs and Clifford insist that once incorrect patterns are automatized, they are difficult, if not impossible to replace with correct

ones. They base this claim on a concept taken from psychology, proactive interference, in which "the prior learning of task A interferes with the current learning of task B. The degree of interference corresponds to the strength of A, which in turn depends on the duration and frequency of the practice at that task" (1982:68). While this sort of interference may be a factor in many types of learning, second language learning included, what is not clear is the strength of the "duration" and "frequency" factors. The effects of extremes are easy to estimate, for example, the daily use of English third person singular form without -s for 20 years would most certainly be difficult (but perhaps not impossible) to eradicate, but not the occasional use in conversation of a non-conjugated verb form in French. Thus, it is not so clear how much incorrect use is necessary as to produce a terminal profile or indeed if this is even possible in a normal foreign language class.

It is true that ungrammaticality in student speech is tolerated in a NA class when students participate in communicative activities.. For example, English speaking students whose target language is Spanish characteristically vacillate between masculine and feminine forms of adjectives, violating rules of gender agreement. Most students tend to overuse masculine forms, although a few occasionally show the opposite tendency. Thus, their speech at first is full of phrases like *blusa bonito* (pretty blouse) and *camisa amarillo* (yellow shirt). A NA approach instructor responds to such errors as would a caretaker talking with a child or a native speaker talking to a foreigner: *Si, es muy bonita laq blusa*. (Yes, the blouse is very pretty), using the correct gender-marked form. Lack of direct error correction does not impede in any way the development of the ability of the students to access nouns and adjectives with correct gender marking. One study of the spontaneous speech of NA students (Kelly 1982) midway through an academic year of study, showed that first year students (after 15 weeks of study) produced gender errors in only 13% of the possible cases and that this number decreased to 8% for second years students and 5% for third year students. Thus, the toleration of some morphological and syntactic errors, i.e., those which do not impede communication nor place an extraordinary burden on a normal native speaker listener, for the 100-300 hours of instruction in first and second year language courses does not necessarily lead to a terminal profile or to fossilization.

On the other hand, I have come in contact with many non-native speakers of Spanish who have lived numerous years in a Spanish-speaking country and who still cannot accurately access to either the correct forms of words which can be gender marked. Therefore, it is clear that such a profile does indeed occur in a natural acquisition environment, However, we should keep in mind, that many of these same learners in a natural acquisition environment have had extensive

instruction in Spanish grammar: and even those who cannot state the rule of gender agreement explicitly. Therefore, it is certainly not the case that grammar instruction or explicit knowledge of rules of grammar will guarantee the avoidance of a terminal profile.[12]

Higgs and Clifford make two specific suggestions to foreign language instructors which supposedly would lead to a greater emphasis on accuracy (presumably in order to avoid later problems with terminal profiles): (1) require heavy monitoring, (2) no reward for linguistically inaccurate, but otherwise successful communication of meaning (1982: 78). Let us examine each recommendation with respect to communicative approaches, in particular NA.

Monitoring All communicative approaches deal with the problem of when and how to require attention to grammatical details, i.e., monitoring. In Krashen's framework (Krashen 1982) there are "under-monitors," those who do not or can not think consciously about accuracy while they talk, "over-monitors," those who allow attention to grammar to interfere with the communicative process, and "optimal-monitors," those who are able to use the monitor to improve accuracy in using markers which are easy to learn through grammar study but difficult (for whatever reason) to acquire. In addition there are "super-monitors," those few individuals who are able to do extensive monitoring without interfering with communication. The position of NA, and I think of most communicative approaches, is that a language class should try to encourage students to be "optimal-monitors." Higgs' and Clifford's use of the phrase "albeit under heavy monitoring at first" appears to imply that students who cannot be "over-monitors" or "super-monitors" are doomed to become "terminal-2's" but I doubt that the authors meant this to be taken so literally.

My characterization of Higgs' and Clifford's second suggestion is perhaps slightly misleading since they state the proposal positively: "It is when students are regularly rewarded for linguistically inaccurate but otherwise successful communication of meaning or intent that the threat of proactive interference in the form of fossilization looms largest." It is unclear exactly what they are proposing, even though intuitively there appears to be a germ of truth in the statement. Suppose an ESL student answers the question *What does your brother do?* with *He work in a hospital*. Are we not to reward the student for a meaningful response and instead call his/her attention to the missing verb marker, or are we to accept the answer as meaningful and in addition call attention to the missing marker? But the first solution, common to old-fashion translation, audio-lingual and cognitive approaches, is grammar clearly unacceptable and would be rejected also by Higgs and Clifford. But, even the second, somewhat more moderate and I assume acceptable to Higgs and Clifford, is not as simple as it may

seem. Grammatical corrections interrupt the students' thoughts and they are, at the very least, irritating, and, worse, they often severely interfere with the interaction. In most communicative approaches, NA included, the instructor would react to the message and expand the student's respone with something like "Oh, he works in a hospital. What does he do there?" These expansions are used extensively by most NA instructors, although there is no evidence, direct or indirect, that they help the student who has made the error to acquire the correct form or structure.

Until there is some conclusive evidence concerning the role of direct, interruptive error correction during normal conversation, the moderate position is precisely the one that both caretakers of children and those who deal with foreigners take: avoid it![13] In conclusion, informal evidence from students who have successfully completed NA courses and from natural acquirers suggest that the terminal profile may not be related to grammar instruction or to error correction at all.

Communicative activities Higgs' and Clifford's second proposal is to avoid tasks which require production far beyond the student's current capability, since they will force them to make use of radical production strategies. These strategies presumably will include drastic grammatical simplification, before they have mastered the appropriate linguistic structures. I believe that this recommendation contains the key to an understanding of both the terminal profile and the importance of the concept of stages of language acquisition if one ignores the provision concerning the prior mastery of linguistic structures.

First, let us reexamine the natural acquisition situation. Adults who find themselves in an environment in which a new language is spoken will begin to acquire the language if they are put in situations in which they need to interact verbally with native speakers of that language. But while adults are perfectly willing to interact with children in a "comprehension" stage, talking to them while expecting little or no verbal responses in the target language, they are not willing to do so with other adults. The result is that in order to get the comprehensible input they need to begin acquisition, adults have to produce utterances in the target language. But since they have not had the opportunity to acquire what they must produce, they fall back on a small number of strategies: use of the native language syntax with target language words, use of single words and short phrases in the target language, and a mixture of native language syntax and simplification strategies. Thus, from the beginning, adult acquirers are forced into situations in which they must produce beyond their acquired level. In many cases, this situation is resolved without any detrimental effect. As learners progress, some develop their listening

skills enough so that their speech begins to change in the direction of the forms and structures processed in the input.[14]

Other learners find that their production strategies produce results: they understand native speakers, native speakers understand them and in addition they rarely receive native feedback, and especially not direct error correction. The result, I believe, is that they begin very early on to acquire their own output. After several years of such communication experiences, the incorrect forms and structures fossilize.

Following this line of reasoning, I interpret Higgs and Clifford to mean that if we put students in the classroom into situations in which they are forced to produce forms and structures far beyond their acquired ability, there is a danger that they will do exactly what learners do in natural situations: reduce grammatical marking to a minimum and acquire their own output.[15]

Although the implication from Higgs' and Clifford's recommendation is that we teach and drill for mastery certain grammatical forms and structures before allowing free communication, NA attempts to handle this problem in a completely different way, through the use of "stages" of production requirements. Stage I, Comprehension, allows the students to begin the acquisition process, as well as adjust affectively to the instructor, the class, and the methodology, without requiring target language use. In Stage I, the input should contain large numbers of simple declarative and interrogative structures as a first approximation at acquisition. Input techniques used in Stage II, Early Speech, are those which encourage minimal target language use. The input continues to contain large numbers of simple structures among which are interspersed questions and comments to encourage simple responses. Most of these are not true communication devices, but rather like those used in caretaker-child interaction, are mostly question which ask the students to "display" knowledge of the target language. The five most common techniques[16] to elicit student responses in Stage II are:

1. Yes/No question: *Is there a dog behind the door?*
2. Either/or: *Is this man running or walking?*
3. Completion: *The woman is wearing a blue ...*
4. Lists: *What do you see in this picture?*
5. Simple interrogative: *Where is the book?*

Another Stage II activity used frequently in both NA and other communication-oriented methodologies is the open dialogue:

-Where are you going?

-To the.....

-Are you going to.....there?

-Yes (No), and then I'm going to.....

The advantage of the open dialogue technique is that it provides a framework so that students can produce language which is still in the process of being acquired, or in Higgs and Clifford words, "...encourage (the students) to use, albeit not freely, the target language in communicative tasks that involve language which is in actuality just beyond their productive competence"(1982:71).

To this point in this paper, I have referred to Krashen's concept of "comprehensible input." However, Krashen (1982) hypothesizes that one of the conditions that comprehensible input must meet for acquisition is that it be at what he calls the *i + 1* level, being the current acquired level of the students and *1* the "next step" in the acquisition process. While *i + 1* is difficult, if not impossible to define precisely, if taken in a general sense, it is very helpful to foreign language instructors. And in NA *i + 1* is taken very seriously. It is not enough that the input be comprehended. Both learners in natural acquisition environments and students in a foreign language class are able to develop listening strategies to comprehend the meaning of input which is far beyond their current *i + 1*. In the previous section I have just claimed that learner in a natural acquisition environment do just that and in addition acquire their own defective output. If, on the other hand, students are allowed to interact mostly with input which is just a bit beyond their current acquired level and at the same time are not forced to produce at levels far beyond their acquired level, as Higgs and Clifford suggest, then it may be possible to avoid massive fossilization in the foreign language class.

I would argue that the approaches most common in foreign language teaching today in the US, especially those using a grammatical syllabus, are, in Higgs' Clifford's term, "accuracy-first" courses. All of these courses, to my knowledge, ignore the possibility of production by stages and instructors insist on Stage II responses in complete sentences from the beginning of the course. The result is that students make a large number of production errors. This leads to the necessity of heavy use of direct, interruptive error correction by the instructor. Thus, my experience is that it is precisely in the grammar-oriented accuracy-first classes in which this forcing of advanced production takes place, not necessarily in communication-oriented ones and certainly not in NA.[17]

7. CONCLUSIONS

In summary then, I know of no evidence that communicative approaches need to include techniques or methods which would necessarily result in a terminal profile. Indeed, I have argued that the most critical characteristic of NA, allowing students to progress through stages of target language production, has the effect of mitigating against premature forced production which is thought by Higgs and Clifford to contribute to fossilization and in addition it obviates the necessity for large amounts of direct, interruptive error correction.

I do not believe, as Higgs and Clifford apparently do, that either the terminal profile or, more generally,fossilization is,or will become, a major problem in foreign language instruction in typical secondary schools, colleges and universities. The number of hours of language use in most programs is not enough to cause irreversible fossilization whether the approach be grammar-oriented or communication-oriented. Fossilization is normally found among adult learners who use the target language daily. Following Higgs' and Clifford's suggestions, I have claimed that the immediate trigger toward the terminal profile is the push of native speakers with whom the learners must interact for speech production before the learners have had sufficient comprehensible input to establish the acquisition of the necessary forms and structures.

My conclusion is that Higgs' and Clifford's proposal for two tracks of language instruction (communication-oriented and accuracy-oriented) is unwarranted. I know of no evidence that either a communication or an accuracy-first track of classroom instruction will condemn the student to a terminal profile or irreversible fossilization, although I personally find accuracy-first courses a bore for all but the very few linguistically-oriented students.. Nor should the instructor think that students in communicative appraches do not learn grammar: this is simply a misunderstanding of the role of communicative experiences in language instruction.

I have suggested that lack of knowledge of the target language grammar is not the main obstacle to native-like levels of adult second language acquisition and therefore Higgs' and Clifford's proposal for accuracy-oriented courses is not supported by the available data or evidence.

NOTES

1. Professors Higgs and Clifford (personal communication) both insist that this was not the intent of the article.

2. "Negative feedback" need not refer only to direct error correction, for example, non-comprehension by an interlocutor would also be a type of negative feedback. This position is appealing since it would appear to explain why some classroom learners speak with higher levels of accuracy than some natural acquirers. And since most native speakers hesitate to correct in any direct fashion the errors of adult L2 learners, it would explain their frequent low levels of fossilizaton. However, it does not explain the reverse situation: many natural learners do achieve highlevels of L2 proficiency without direct error correction by their interlocutors and many (perhaps even most) students in a classroom do not achieve high levels of accuracy even with direct or indirect error correction.

3. While I am entirely sympathetic to the idea of the importance of a peer group which contains native speakers of the target language in preventing fossilization, it is also true that interaction with native-speaking (monolingual?) peers in the target language will result in a large increase in comprehensible input and in output practice in communicative situations.

4. Clifford and Higgs (1982:67) mention that a terminal 1+ profile also is frequent. However, in my experience, in addition to terminal 1/1+ and 2/2+, there also exist terminal 3/3+ and 4/4+ profiles. Both Higgs and Clifford confirm that this is indeed the case (personal communications). And indeed, my position is identical to that of Selinker and Lamendella (1978) that at least some fossilization before reaching native norms applies to all adult L2 learners.

5. It is incorrect, of course, to attribute permanency of errors to a speaker with whom we are only casually conversing. However, I have several friends who use certain English structures incorrectly and have done so for many years. A good example is a Brazilian friend of mine who came to the United States at 20 years of age and who after 30 years in this country is English dominant. In her speech she still tends to omit certain direct object pronouns, a structure which is permitted by Brazilian Portuguese, but not by English.

6. In fact, there are no quantified data presented in this paper with regard to any of the proposed sources of fossilization, despite their repeated claims (for example, 1982:74, "the data suggest that ..." and "the data shows that..."). Closer to reality is the statement that "we have presented evidence based on experiential but consistent data ..." (1982:73). While I have nothing against the use of anecdotal evidence (and indeed, use it frequently in this paper), and do indeed count it as a particular kind of "data," the fact is that the use of the term "data," throughout the paper suggests that there are reportable results from some scientifically validated sample which was subjected to statistical analysis. This may indeed be the case, but those kinds of data do not appear anywhere in this paper. It is also quite difficult to determine how the data could be collected and analyzed. One would have to look at individuals who cannot improve past an FSI rating 2+ in order to see how many such cases fall into one of the three categories mentioned. However, if one would also have to examine an equal number of successful cases of language learners, in order to determine

how many of them also fit into the three categories proposed by Higgs and Clifford. (See also Van Patten 1986a for further discussion.)

7. Carroll (1975: 277) did find that "teacher competence in the foreign language--however acquired--makes a significant difference in student outcomes. "However, this does not mean that terminal profiles necessarily develop from teachers with low level language skills. (Indeed one of my first year Spanish teachers in high school did not, as it turned out later, know how to speak Spanish! The other spoke it quite fluently, but since Spanish was never spoken in the classroom, I did not find out that this was the case until years later).

8. See, for example, the extensive references to the Higgs and Clifford article in Omaggio (1986).

9. The problem with assessing the charge that the terminal syndrome is possible (common?) in four semesters of instruction (presumably using methodologies which do not stress grammatical accuracy from the beginning), is that so few college level students go on past the fourth semester to attempt professional levels (FSI 3). Indeed Carroll's study (Carroll 1967) cited by Higgs and Clifford (1982: 61) showed that most foreign language major (presumably with a great deal of work past the fourth semester) attain only a level 2/2 + and yet, most of us would not wish to claim that these students' speech has already fossilized.

10. For more detailed information on NA consult Terrell (1977, 1982a, 1982b, 1986); Krashen and Terrell (1983), Krashen et.al (1984). For examples of pedagogical materials see Terrell, et. al. (1986), Alvarez-Martini, et. al. (1984), and Chips, B. et. al. (1987), and beginning French and German college level texts to be published by Random House (January 1988).

11. I am so convinced that affective factors are the most important variable in success in language acquisition, that I would not be willing to teach a foreign language course which stressed grammatical accuracy from the very beginning of the course, much less one the goal of which was to teach "fundamental linguistic structures" (1982: 74) even if Higgs and Clifford were correct about terminal profiles. And although Higgs and Clifford state in their conclusions that "A curricular programmatic decision to strive for linguistic accuracy from the beginning of a program in no way excludes an approach or methodology in which the target language is used as the medium of instruction and for authentic, if relatively more constrained, communication," the historical reality of foreign language in the United States proves quite the opposite, i.e. that an emphasis on grammatical accuracy dominates everything in the course including texts, classroom activities, and exams to such an extent that even the students end up believing that acquiring a language is synonymous with the study of grammar.

12. See for example, Seliger's 1979 study of a/an and the non-correlation between conscious knowledge and accurate use.

13. See also Van Patten 1986b and 1987 for a more detailed discussion of error correction.

14. In my follow-up paper on fossilization, I attempt to explain why some learners in a natural acquisition environment are successful in avoiding fossilization and others are not.

15. There is some evidence that such a "classroom dialect" which is grammatically far short of the target model can indeed develop and perhaps fossilize. Such cases have been described in the "immersion" programs in Canada and in the US. However, it is not clear that they are due to the mechanism of forced high level production tasks. Some researchers suggest that the fossilization may result from a lack of interaction and identification with native speaking peers of the target language and perhaps other affective factors I will return to this possibility in my follow-up paper. (See also Selinker, Swain and Dumas 1975 and contrast with Harley and Swain 1984.)

16. Any of these display questions types can be followed up by and/or converted into what Michael Long (1985) calls referential questions through personalization: *Do you like to play tennis or golf?*

17. For example, most foreign language textbooks on the United States market today can be characterized as "cognitively" oriented and based on a grammatical syllabus. This is true even of the so-called "proficiency-oriented" texts in which accuracy and Stage III responses are required from the beginning.

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Teaching Reading in the Foreign Language Classroom*

Heidi Byrnes

I. INTRODUCTION

As foreign language professionals have become aware of the concept of proficiency, they have shown a tendency to equate it with communication, specifically oral communication. In addition, while focusing on the communicative event of speaking, they have favored only one of the roles performed by the participants, namely that of speakers, while essentially disregarding their role as listeners. This is not surprising. With the advent of the audiolingual approach, we as teachers have considered speaking the foremost goal of our instructional program, even if that goal was only vaguely defined in terms of specific learner outcomes. Likewise, our students typically indicate an ability to speak as the desired result for their foreign language studies. In general, then, if characteristics of listening and being a listener are discussed at all, it tends to be by default: only in so far as the ability to speak hinges on the ability to understand spoken material does listening merit attention.

However, equating teaching toward proficiency with an exclusive focus on speaking is erroneous. And, the second assumption, that communication through speaking should be the primary goal of foreign language instruction, has numerous limitations that are magnified by the American setting, and specifically, by American instructional realities.

First, with the exception of Spanish, perhaps French, and more recently some Asian languages, the opportunities for American students to engage in spoken communication with native speakers of the target language are relatively scarce. Even where they do occur, most of the speakers involved can handle English well enough to fulfill basic communicative tasks, thus further reducing the urgency for using

*This paper was presented at DLIFLC on November 5, 1985, as a part of the *ACTFL Master Lecture Series*.

the L2. Aware of the relatively limited opportunities for speaking, we must ask ourselves what opportunities for language use do exist for our learners.

Second, we have ample evidence that the vast majority of foreign language programs produce less then a useful level of spoken language ability in their participants. Deferring foreign language instruction until high school or even college not only misses optimal onset for this kind of learning activity but also limits the number of years available for it.

Intimately connected with ultimate level of attainment is the issue of skill maintenance or, put another way, skill loss. There can be no doubt that the real societal value of language teaching and language learning depends on the learners' long-term ability to use the contents of this learning. Unfortunately, not only is speaking ability more difficult to develop than ability in the other skill modalities. But the watershed level, that is, the level at which performance is relatively safe from loss, is high for speaking, certainly higher than what most programs can accomplish.

Finally, from a pedagogical perspective, we might want to consider the following: if speaking is indeed the stated goal of our instructional efforts -- and it is certainly a legitimate one -- might we not be able to improve our efficacy by an integrated, multi-pronged approach, rather than by emphasizing speaking in a one-dimensional way?

All of these points support the conclusion that language modes other than speaking, specifically reading, deserve a new assessment of their place within our instructional programs. To anticipate the thrust of my argument, the place for reading which I will advocate is not a result of simply finding more time for what we have done all along. Instead, rethinking a host of issues surrounding the activity of reading, its preconditions, occasions, purposes, and required processes and behavioral attributes, will result in a different understanding of the essential qualities of reading and, ultimately, will demand different pedagogical approaches.

II. PAST PRACTICES IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE READING

Any reassessment of the role of reading in the foreign language class must consider key characteristics of past practices. In the initial stages of language learning, reading entered instruction primarily after materials had previously been covered orally. Essentially the written text, mostly in the form of dialogues, provided a permanent record

ofthat earlier oral work, thus allowing the learners to go back to it for the purposes of ultimately improving their speaking ability. Reading in the foreign language classroom thus performed a purely ancillary pedagogical function and offered essentially none of the features that characterize native-language reading.

In this type of reading the possibility of learning vocabulary and structures, but particularly the hope for improved pronunciation through reading aloud, were among the staple assumptions. Furthermore, reading aloud by pronouncing the individual words with a reasonable degree of intelligibility and acceptability was taken to indicate not only learning of the language forms but also comprehension of their meaning. While reading a text with the appropriate intonation, stress, voice quality, sentence rhythm, and speed is indeed a strong indicator of comprehension (see the incorporation of reading aloud in the Goethe Institute OberstufenPrüfung), these complexly related suprasegmental features could scarcely be attended to in the beginning classroom where reading aloud was an important instructional activity. Thus, reading was not only perceived as torturous by students and teachers alike. It also neither had a real chance of benefiting the development of foreign language skills nor of resembling what reading was like in the native language.

Curiously enough, despite contrary evidence, we believed that reading skills were already thoroughly developed in the native language, that students were aware, consciously or subconsciously, of the strategies they employed during reading, and that these well-developed strategies and the students' awareness of them would directly and readily transfer into foreign language reading, though in a manner not further specified. These erroneous assumptions formed the basis of reading activities in advanced classes, where they regularly contributed to the high frustration levels students experienced when working with complex texts.

A further contradiction can be noted: while we implicitly appealed to native language reading strategies, we severely restricted the native language pallette for indicating reading comprehension. What counted as comprehension in the foreign language was displaying the ability to answer content questions following reading of the text, an activity which, in most cases, required little more than reading out aloud verbatim excerpts from the text.

Although other features could further describe past practices in reading those cited indicate an understanding of reading far removed

from the dynamic, interactive, and negotiated quality of language and meaning that recent scholarship has emphasized. In the following I will present some of its key assumptions.

III. CHARACTERISTICS OF A COGNITIVE PROCESS-ORIENTED READING MODEL

Recent models of language emphasize that the essential role of language is to communicate meanings. While this seems no more than a repetition of the obvious, deeper reflection on how such communication does and can possibly come about uncovers substantial contradictions to many aspects of language teaching practice, particularly with respect to reading.

Most important among these is an acknowledgement of the social basis of language and of meaning. It is perhaps understandable if foreign language teachers are enamored with the richness and complexity of language forms. But we must remind ourselves from time to time that even the most elaborated system of language is incapable of transmitting any meanings at all unless such meanings are previously shared through other ways. This underlying shared basis of meaning is the network of social interactions within the language and culture group into which we are socialized informally and formally from the first day of our lives. Even the meanings of words for seemingly given phenomena, such as distance or time, are far from uniform across languages but, instead, are culturally mediated. Thus, in the end, it is not language per se that enables meanings. Rather, language serves as a shorthand way of calling up, in speaker and hearer, shared extralinguistic knowledge of the world. Assuming identical language background, communication will be the more successful the greater that shared knowledge basis is. Or, looking at it from another way, no amount of appropriate language use can guarantee communication if it is not supported by a significant overlap of previous knowledge of the world.

Comprehension in reading is thus the creative act of bringing to a text one's own background knowledge. On that basis, the reader is able to activate a certain frame of reference or meaning within which the communication is likely to take place. Understanding is not decoding individual words as they occur and piecing a global meaning together on their aggregate sum. Instead, it occurs as a matching process between anticipated meanings and meanings brought to mind through the shorthand of language.

How do these anticipated meanings come about? They are the result of extensive experience with a wide variety of settings, likely participants in these settings, roles they take on, goals they pursue, strategies they employ, and broad knowledge about our physical environment. This experience is summarized for us in schemata, frames or scripts, which we can draw up whole, such as a restaurant scene, a sales transaction, a wedding, a professional meeting or an act of apology. These schemata summarize for us key features of the communicative setting and it is within their frameworks that meanings are attached to specific events. Having available a rich and elaborated storehouse of schemata allows us to activate the highly efficient and accurate matching process described above, between our expectations and what actually occurs. The end product of that matching process is comprehension of new events.

However, it is not only our extralinguistic knowledge of the world that allows us to anticipate meanings. The language system, too, can be thought of as a highly predictable set of form/meaning occurrences. Though operative in any communication, this canon of expectations has been most formalized in the written form of a language, particularly in its most elaborate form, its literature. Language-specific expectations of genre, such as advertisement, newspaper report, anecdote, parable, fairy tale, travelogue, professional article, etc. greatly enhance our ability to anticipate what kind of text we are about to encounter, that is, what kinds of meanings are likely to be transmitted.

Thus, both extralinguistic and linguistic schemata serve to reduce the theoretically unlimited possibilities for meanings to a highly restricted set of favored possibilities, a restriction that makes effective and efficient communication possible at all.

Describing what takes place in reading comprehension from the standpoint of the processes involved, we could say that we impose top-down, schema-driven holistic meaning expectations on bottom-up, data-derived local meanings, adjusting our meaning expectations only if called upon to do so on the basis of unexpected specific linguistic data. Even here we show a remarkable predisposition to ignore specifics, unless they amount to massive evidence against our expectations. It is the efficiency in applying top-down as well as bottom-up processing in a manner that is appropriate to one's previous knowledge and to the communicative task at hand that marks the skilled reader.

IV. NATIVE-LANGUAGE READING AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE READING

Having arrived at a preliminary description of native language reading, we must now identify key features of foreign language reading. We can say that foreign language reading faces two formidable obstacles. On the one hand, the all-important precondition of shared background knowledge is far from given since we are dealing, by definition, with different cultural systems. On the other hand, the linguistic system, too, is not completely available to the learner. On both counts, then, foreign language reading seems headed for major obstacles: learners are trying to create meanings on the basis of defective underlying systems, a serious flaw in itself, but one that is dangerously magnified since interpretations on the basis of one system drive interpretations in the other.

Of the many important conclusions that can be drawn from this state of affairs I will single out four:

First, in whatever ways possible, we must encourage our students to draw on their knowledge of the world. This may take many diverse forms, from providing them with background information on a given topic in their native language, particularly if culture-specific matters are being treated, to purposely selecting, in the initial stages of learning, texts with few cultural idiosyncracies and a high reliance on shared human experience.

Second, we must make them aware of features of efficient reading, that is, what strategies are likely to be most effective for diverse reading tasks, and, if necessary, help them acquire these strategies and apply them. These strategies will be language-independent as well as language-dependent.

Third, we must help students approach all language forms, whether in the area of grammar or vocabulary, in terms of meaning.

And, finally, we must create near-authentic occasions for reading and near-authentic ways for indicating comprehension that reflect, as much as possible, the purposes which reading naturally serves all of us.

The remainder of my discussion pertains to ways of incorporating these concerns into foreign language reading instruction.

V. APPROACHING A TEXT

A. Pre-Reading and Preparation Stage

Recognizing the fact that a successful reader brings information to the text, it is imperative for us to help the second language reader activate previous knowledge, nonlinguistic as well as linguistic. On the one hand, this will alert students to information already in their heads so as to heighten their ability to predict and anticipate effectively within major schemata. On the other hand, it will bring to their attention or ease the retrieval of language forms pertinent to the topic.

Among activities suitable for this stage are:

- **Brainstorming**: Depending on the level of the class and the level of difficulty of the text this can be done in the native or the target language. In pair, group or whole class work students can brainstorm about what a given broad topic is likely to treat.

- **Visuals**: Very often visuals, either those accompanying the text or supportive materials, can help to create a focused discussion.

- **Predicting**: A variation of brainstorming is predicting, whereby a story title or subtitle, a headline in a newspaper or a table of contents in a book or a magazine can lead to activation of highly detailed expectations. This can even be taken as far as predicting the thrust of the argument of a paragraph on the basis of a first sentence.

- **Language preparation**: Certain texts may have a significant preponderance of certain structures or vocabulary items, such as passives or descriptive adjectives. Likewise, lexicon is typically clustered around a certain topic. While it is inappropriate to present this vocabulary in the standard vocabulary lists, it might be beneficial to help students gather some key terms as they are exploring the topic in their brainstorming session.

Aside from creating anticipation, the above activities gradually disabuse students of an unfortunate approach to reading that many have, namely that texts are essentially idiosyncratic amalgamations of individual sentences that happen to show up in a sequence that is not further motivated by any sensible and reasonable organizational structure, in terms of content and language use.

B. Skimming and Scanning Stage

Among the most debilitating notions of foreign language readers are the following:

(1) it is crucial for them to "know" every word in the text before they can effectively obtain its meaning;

(2) each part of the text is of equal importance and must be attended to with equal weight;

(3) we approach all the texts in the same fashion, regardless of the purposes we pursue in reading them in the first place.

The activities of skimming and scanning are intended to free learners from the fears they hold due to the above erroneous assumptions.

In skimming activities students are looking for the gist of a given text, scanning involves locating specific information which, typically, requires disregarding or, at least, downgrading information that is irrelevant for the given task. In either case students are encouraged to read for a purpose, to read on despite missing individual lexical items, and thus to free themselves from the inefficiency of a word-specific approach. This is not to downgrade the importance of knowing vocabulary, but to help students experience the interrelatedness of vocabulary within a text, ultimately enabling them to guess such missing vocabulary from context by going back between various parts of the text in order to obtain valid clues.

While the actual choice of skimming and scanning activities depends upon the content and purpose of the reading passage, students frequently perform such tasks as:

- reporting back on the specific information sought;
- identifying applicable text sources from a whole group of texts;
- grouping texts according to major categories;
- filling in charts;
- matching characters with traits or events;
- selecting or creating a title;
- making a judgment about actions or events, or the passage in general.

As with the preparatory activities skimming and scanning tasks may be done either in the native or the target language.

C. Intensive Reading and Decoding Stage

Once students have indicated an ability to approach texts holistically for a certain specified purpose they must learn to assign

detailed meanings to specific sections. This can be done for the dual purpose of exploring the contents in greater depth, as well as for learning language forms through the experience of dealing with the text. In other words, reading in the foreign language classroom is both reading to learn about a variety of topics of interest and learning to read in a foreign language, that is, improving one's command of the language.

The degree to which either of these legitimate goals is pursued must be carefully guided by the teacher. Guidelines for selecting content activities are:

- The need to maintain, as much as possible, a convincing authenticity for the tasks students are to perform. In other words, teachers must constantly ask what real tasks one might be involved in which presuppose and thereby ascertain student comprehension of this particular text.

- The importance of offering students a variety of texts at different levels of difficulty, but with an awareness that it is more the tasks performed in conjunction with a given text than the text in and of itself that make a reading assignment difficult or manageable.

- The benefits of group work in complex skimming and scanning activities which allow students a measure of success even with texts that are significantly ahead of their current comfortable reading level.

Intensive reading for improving language ability might involve the following suggested activities:

- contextual guessing in a multiple choice or true/false format;
- finding new lexical items with a given meaning range;
- building up word families on the basis of derivations or compounding;
- listing synonyms and antonyms, or contrasts;
- finding cognates;
- clarifying reference within and between complex sentences;
- marking and categorizing sentence connectors.

D. Comprehension Check and Evaluation Stage

While the reading activities suggested already incorporate a strong evaluative component, it might be desirable to obtain more direct evidence for reading comprehension. This can be done formally or informally, with or without the text, in the foreign or in the target language. The most important consideration for any activities here is authenticity of task. While it is clear that native language reading outside the classroom practically never involves true/false testing or setting up of completion or matching exercises, the decision-making process native readers go through is not altogether dissimilar from that required in test formats such as: multiple-choice, true/false, completion, matching exercises, cloze procedures, filling in of charts, and summaries.

In any case, it is important to test a broad range of linguistic and processing strategies, at different levels of the form hierarchy (i.e. word, or diverse grammatical features) and at different levels of understanding (i.e. global, specific, accessing directly given information, reading between the lines, getting the tone and flavor of a text, clarifying author intent).

E. Transferring and Integrating Skills

As students learn to deal with a variety of texts and perform a variety of tasks they build up an inventory of diverse strategies, linguistic as well as non-linguistic. While the efficient native reader subconsciously applies these strategies appropriately, foreign language learners can often benefit by having them brought to their attention.

Among non-linguistic strategies, students tend to benefit most from an awareness of the power of schemata and of major cognitive patterns which are reflected in major organizational arrangements, among them chronological, cause and effect, from general to specific and vice versa, contrastive or adversial.

These organizational patterns tend to have specific linguistic realizations in function words which weave through an entire text in order to guide the reader through the line of argumentation. Students often disregard these "little words," thereby completely missing the substance of an argument although all other factual components seem to have been correctly interpreted. Knowledge of these organizational patterns and their specific linguistic repercussions is an essential and highly transferable skill for effective foreign language reading.

Still dealing with language forms, but on a lower level, we have a variety of strategies for contextual guessing and for the appropriate use of dictionaries.

Finally, students can show the depth of their text comprehension as well as their improved language skills by integrating what they have learned in a variety of ways in different language modalities (i.e. speaking, writing). Among them are:

- **rewriting a narrative as a dialogue;**
- **rewriting a narrative from the perspective of another, perhaps minor character in the plot;**
- **acting out the story;**
- **giving an opinion on actions by various participants in the plot;**
- **offering a rebuttal to the main points;**
- **acting on the reading in a subsequent task;**
- **changing the ending of a story;**
- **discussing or debating an issue that was raised;**
- **changing the intention of a text, i.e. from informing to persuading or offering a polemic;**
- **presenting a summary, as in a short newscast.**

All of these classroom teaching and testing approaches have in common an understanding of reading as a process that seeks to create meaning, not through automatic and passive decoding, but through involvement of the entire person who must draw on all cognitive and linguistic resources. With such involvement in a highly individual activity language learning for once has the chance of becoming the intellectually stimulating activity that we have always proclaimed but seldom allowed it to be.

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FACULTY EXCHANGE

INTERVIEW WITH ROBERT M. GAGNÉ

Lidia Woytak

In this issue Robert M. Gagné, world famous educator, shares his views about education and, specifically, foreign language instruction with readers of Dialog on Language Instruction.

In 1937, Gagné received an A.B. degree from Yale, where he studied German and French, and 3 years later a Ph. D. in psychology from Brown University. Subsequently, he taught psychology in Connecticut College for Women, Princeton and other universities. He also served as research director for Air Force Personnel and Training Research Center and was a Consultant for the Department of Defense. Since 1969 he has been professor of educational research at Florida State University in Tallahassee.

Professor Gagné is the author of two classic works *The Conditions of Learning* (4th ed., 1985) and with Briggs, *Principles of Instructional Design* (2nd ed., 1979). Gagné advocates a systems approach to instructional design. In his theoretical considerations, Gagné has been influenced by Benjamin Bloom and John Carroll, among others. Both Bloom and Carroll became proponents of the mastery learning concept. This concept has grown from a desirable feature of instruction to an instructional theory. According to this theory, the key factors influencing student achievement are: cognitive entry behaviors, affective entry characteristics and quality of instruction. In contrast to Bloom and Carroll, Gagné focused his research primarily on quality of instruction. Needs analysis (what needs to be done), task analysis (description of observable human behavior) and classification of objectives (types of learning outcome) constitute major elements in his studies on the quality of instruction which is known as instructional design theory.

During the 1987 Convention of the American Educational Research Association which took place in Washington, DC, Gagné presented a lecture titled: "Common Features of Instructional Design and Mastery Learning." In this invited address, Gagné made a distinction between internal learning processes and instruction. The latter he viewed as "a set of deliberately planned external events

designed to support learning processes." Gagné also pointed out that although external events may influence or support internal processes, they do not cause them directly. Next, Gagné presented the usual sequence of instruction:

- gaining attention
- informing the learner of objectives
- stimulating prior learning
- presenting stimuli
- providing learning guidance
- eliciting performance
- giving informative feedback
- assessing performance
- enhancing retention and learning transfer

Further, Gagné hypothesized that: "Each of the events of instruction is capable of supporting internal processes of learning. Unless such support is provided by the learner's own processes of executive control, the presence of each event adds to the probability of successful achievement."

For the past several years, Professor Gagné has been emphasizing the concept of "automaticity." He believes that highly practiced skills can be performed automatically and thus free the attention for other learning. Gagné stated that automaticity can be achieved by practice. During his lecture in Washington, DC, Gagné also discussed the function of "schema," often considered as passive knowledge. According to him, this type of knowledge is used all the time in learning and thinking.

Following his lecture, Professor Gagné agreed to share his views on instructional design and the impact of his theory on foreign language education with readers of *Dialog on Language Instruction*.

W. Could you describe your contribution to American curriculum? Especially, what are the new concepts which were introduced by you?

G. The concepts I have written about or done, that have contributed the most, are the five kinds of learning outcome, namely:

1. intellectual skills
2. verbal information
3. cognitive strategies
4. attitudes
5. motor skills

Some subjects of the curriculum are obviously almost entirely composed of intellectual skills. That is true of mathematics. Others are involved with intellectual skills, such as the rules of how you write poetry. Learning language, in the sense of learning many of the words in a metaphoric sense, goes far beyond learning of intellectual skills. I think that in any subject of the curriculum, it is desirable for the teacher to distinguish these varieties of learning outcome.

W. Could you comment on John Carrolls' monitor model, on his learning theory?

G. I find much of value - a very valuable set of ideas. It is, as he himself has pointed out, an econometric theory. Of all the variables that might affect school achievement, what are they and how do they interact? It is not the kind of theory I have worked with. There isn't a conflict, but it is a different kind of theory because it's saying what are all of the variables, and I ask a much narrower question. I ask what is meant by quality of instruction?

W. And Carroll goes beyond that?

G.. Yes, just as Bloom does. You see Bloom asks what are all the things that contribute to the outcome of achievement. Bloom acknowledges that his ideas are very close to those of Carroll's. For instance, he talks about the factors that precede going into the school.

W. Prior knowledge?

G. Well, also prior attitudes. Affective domain, in other words.

W. How would you respond to your critics who say that your theory is based on behavioristic theories, like Skinner's Stimulus-Response Theory?

G. I would say that my theory is based on cognitive learning theory and learning in terms of cognitive processes. I do not consider that this view is necessarily antithetical to behaviorism, because I find a most important aspect of behavioristic thinking is that theoretical concepts must be defined in terms of how they can be tested. That's an aspect of behaviorism which I think is very valuable. Now, as to the theory itself, I don't think my current instructional ideas are based upon what some people would call an associationistic view of learning. I don't think that's adequate any longer.

W. Do you see any major trends emerging in American curriculum?

G. Obviously in higher education there are some major trends. American education is full of remedial courses. One third of high school courses are devoted to remediation. That's a very inefficient and bad thing. Teaching kids in high school what they should have learned in the first grade, that's no good, that's bad. Additionally, it is much less apparent that students in higher education want to acquire what used to be called a liberal arts education, which makes them into educated people. There is a much greater emphasis these days on vocational themes. That is a change, I think, in American education. How does that change filter down? It hasn't particularly filtered down into the pre-college - I don't think it has. What's the change in pre-college education? The only change I see in pre-college education in the United States is a lack of rigor that I really think was there 50 years ago.

W. So when did the decline start?

G. Particularly after WWII.

W. And we haven't made progress since.

G. That's according to how you view it. Some people say, of course, we did. Personally, I think the quality has deteriorated in the sense of the standards of what we expect of students at each level. I think they have been vastly weakened.

W. Are the standards low or imprecise?

G. Low.

W. How would you encourage students in advanced education to learn more? How would you promote higher standards, what would be the steps?

G. Higher standards, I think, have to be established by the school board, or otherwise by the people who control schools in each community.

W. As an instructional designer, do you focus mostly on the learning process or teaching process?

G. Well, I personally have arrived at the teaching process through considering what are the requirements of the learner. So I always start with the learner and what has to be learned.

W. Where do you see the impact of your theory?

G. It's scattered - occasionally there are systematic programs set up on teaching intellectual skills. There is one in Ontario, Canada. I see it sometimes in military training, industrial training, and in some computer-aided instruction. Otherwise, I see its influence through teacher education programs.

W. To what extent does your theory apply to foreign language instruction?

G. I think that my theory or model of instruction obviously applies to foreign language instruction. The easiest thing for it to cover is, of course, the rules of grammar. Those are intellectual skills which, I would say, need to be learned and mastered in the way that I've described.

W. Is automaticity an important area in foreign language instruction?

G. Yes, it is in the area of rules of grammar. Grammar rules should be known and used automatically. I know that they can be because I've learned foreign languages that way myself.

W. How does one learn vocabulary?

G. I think I would call upon the notion of the schema. I've always been impressed with the technique that embeds the learning of new words in typical situations, such as what do you have to know if you are going to an airport or to a restaurant. Beyond that, I don't know that I have an awful lot to contribute except the basic notion of learning any new word meaning within a larger context. That's largely what I'm talking about here.

W. Should instruction start with discrete or holistic learning?

G. Well, it's difficult to say. It has to be a combination of both. It seems to me that learning grammatical rules has to be discrete. You simply have to present them discretely along with a number of examples. On the other hand, learning to carry on a conversation has to be done in a holistic manner. You have to get to this holistic context very soon in order to have learning of conversational language.

W. Could you comment on the difficulty of stating goals and objectives in the area of humanistic subjects such as teaching poetry and learning

foreign languages? What tools do you prescribe to overcome the difficulty?

G. I don't see much difference in stating objectives for learning foreign languages and constructing poetry. The main difficulty of stating objectives obviously comes with declarative knowledge, which is the vast array of knowledge we store and never use directly. Nevertheless, this knowledge is used; some people call it "passive knowledge." It is used constantly because it is a source of metaphoric thinking. You know what is the outcome or the objective of learning such knowledge. I would say the objective is to store up a bunch of knowledge. You can, of course, specify the objective in the sense of how do I know that this person has some particular items of knowledge? My question would be not so precise. What is usually done in courses such as history is that the instructor says, "Okay, I want you to write an essay on a particular historical event." It isn't really viewed in terms of precisely defined objectives. I don't think it can be or should be. Nevertheless, I don't want people to forget that objectives are important to keep in mind. Anybody who is teaching, it seems to me, should have an idea of what the outcomes are supposed to be.

W. How would you go about stating goals and objectives for foreign language instruction? How would you deal with concepts which are not discrete in nature? It's easy to work with discrete concepts, but in foreign language students have to move simultaneously -- employ five to ten functions at one time.

G. In constructing a sentence or understanding a sentence a student has to engage in thinking. I would simply say the way to figure out what and how to teach a foreign language is to start with the aim, the goal, the objective, and say what does it take to do that? What are these ten functions that you speak of that the student must put together in his head when he is trying to construct a new sentence or carry on a new conversation? Then, having determined what they are, be sure the students learn them. I realize that is too simple, but that's the strategy anyway.

W. Basically a design has to be layed out?

G. I'd say so, yes, and by all means I would start with the ultimate goal, however you want to define that, and work backwards. What does it take in order for the student to do the things that lead to that goal?

W. In recent years in foreign language instruction there has been a strong movement towards communication. Teachers were pushing communication and sometimes students were not prepared to

communicate right away because they weren't given enough rules and enough fundamentals to perform the task.

G. This is a real problem and it occurs in many subjects.

W. When we talk about higher level learning, it is sometimes difficult to achieve 100% mastery because objectives cannot be stated precisely.

G. Yes, I don't think they should be so stated.

W. So you don't think that 100% would apply?

G. On the contrary, it should be encouraged in every kind of creative advanced thinking. You have to get students to tackle a main problem-solving task. But in order to do that, you have to give them the tools to do it with, and there is no simple way of combining those things. You have to work for a continued combination. Just as is the case with first grader's reading, you have to work at the skills of identifying the sounds of the English language. At the same time, you can't stop there. You have to give them the opportunity to read. You have to give them exercises to read. The same thing occurs in learning foreign language. If one is going to be responding to foreign speakers, you have to give them practice in doing that, even if it is initially very simple. But fundamentally, they'll never be able to progress and do anything more complicated than that unless they learn some fundamentals. And the fundamentals are, of course, learning foreign language expressions, which I think is hard, and learning grammatical rules, which I think is easily undertaken.

W. What do you think about creating a national foreign language foundation?

G. We need it, that's one of the things that has changed in American education that you asked me about. There is now a great de-emphasis on learning a foreign language.

W. How was it when you went to school?

G. We expected people in high school to study at least one foreign language. Admittedly, we were learning to read and not to converse to any great extent. Nevertheless, we were studying a foreign language.

W. Thank you, Professor Gagné, for sharing your views with the readers of *Dialog on Language Instruction*.

TEACHING WITHOUT TEXTS

Report on Class 04FR10W2187

René de Barros

The results of the Defense Language Proficiency Test (DLPT) in French have demonstrated that the graduating students possess, generally, adequate speaking and reading abilities. The areas of strength are an excellent knowledge of grammatical structures, an extensive vocabulary and the ability to express themselves effectively. However, there seem to be two main areas where the students show obvious weaknesses: pronunciation and listening comprehension. It is true that the French phonetic system is particularly difficult for anglophone students. Several French sounds do not exist in English. Nevertheless, there are other reasons for these weaknesses which are probably due to poor learning techniques.

Probable Causes

Foreign language students have a tendency to rely too much on reading the textbooks. Although the instructors advise them to listen to the pronunciation of the vocabulary, many students keep looking up every word they hear or copy each word written on the blackboard. The students obviously feel uncomfortable learning by listening only. Since French, like English, is not written phonetically, students retain the spelling of the new word, not its pronunciation, and will remember it according to their knowledge of the rules of reading English.

It follows that many of the students often neglect to listen in class and let their minds wander, confident that they will find the words or the rule that they have missed in the textbook at a later time. The excuse is usually that they can only learn if they "see things in writing." This complacency is reinforced by their confidence in their ability to learn by reading.

Finally, in the French Department, students are supposed to listen to tapes of the basic course almost every night at home. It is a difficult task for them and they have a hard time discriminating between sounds with which they are not familiar. In spite of the advice of the instructors, students look up the taped dialogue in their textbooks. Once more, an exercise which should be for listening comprehension only becomes one for reading comprehension. Obviously, some improvement is needed in listening techniques and some modification of the curriculum seems to be in order.

Possible Remedies

Less emphasis should be placed on textbooks, particularly at the beginning of the course. If students did not have the option of looking up new words that are given to them during class, they, most likely, would be forced to pay more attention to the instructor and concentrate more on listening as the only way to acquire new material. By eliminating the possibility of referring to the textbook at home, complacency would disappear. They would have to rely more on their auditory memory which would help train them in listening better and hence in discriminating better between sounds.

In the same vein, if they did not have access to the written text of the homework dialogue, they would have no recourse but to listen to the tape over and over again until they make sense out of it. In other words, the possibility of "cheating" would be eliminated. Everything seems to point to the benefit of eliminating all written texts at the beginning of the course and forcing the students to rely almost exclusively on their listening skills.

To remedy the situation, the French Department decided to conduct an experiment in which no textbooks were provided to the students for a period of two weeks.

Implementation of the Experiment

A special class of eight students started a course of nine and a half weeks at the beginning of October. The majority of the students were communication specialists averaging 34 years of age. Except for two students who had between one and two semesters of French in college some years before, the class did not have any previous formal study of a foreign language.

When they started, they were given no textbooks whatsoever, only tapes representing real life situations and oral exercises pertaining to the dialogue. All the material was presented in class almost exclusively orally. For the sake of pronunciation, some phonetic alphabet symbols were given and on rare occasions a French word was written on the blackboard. The students were strongly advised to tape the classes. In addition, they were given special tapes with the conjugation of the present tense of four basic verbs, including the auxiliaries. The basic interrogative expressions and the common prepositions were also on the tape. The tape was conceived as an oral dictionary, with written references to the counter of their tape recorder which was in fact the equivalent of an index in a book. The reference numbers allow the students to find whatever conjugation or expression they might be looking for, as well as to review or even learn what they had not heard or understood well.

During class, all new material relevant to the taped situation that they were supposed to listen to at night was given to them. The following day, an exercise exploiting the same tape was conducted to see how much they had understood and how to help them understand what they had not understood previously. Also additional situation tapes were given to the students for study in class. Emphasis was placed on perfect structures and on correct pronuncia-tion. After two weeks, textbooks were distributed with the exception of the one which contained the dialogues pertaining to their homework. It was thought that it would be better if the students did not have any written references about the oral material that they had to listen to at home. After eight weeks, the students took the French DLPT which is usually administered after 25 weeks of study. Out of a total of eight students the following results were achieved:

Levels of Proficiency

Skills	0	0+	0+ ↑	1
1 ↑	1+			
Speaking	12.5% (1)	25% (2)	25%(2)	2 5 %
(2)	0%	12.5%(1)		
Listening	12.5%(1)	12.5%(1)	0%	
62.5%(5)	0%	12.5%(1)		

Only one student scored 0 in all the skills. It is to be noted that in a regular class of 25 weeks, he would have been dismissed at the end of the fourth week.

It is, of course, difficult to draw conclusions from such a small experiment, but it does seem to indicate an encouraging trend. First, the results in listening can be considered as very good, if one takes into consideration the short time involved. It appears that the students had improved their listening ability as well as their capability to discriminate between foreign sounds. A second point worth mentioning is the fact that there was a noted superiority in the pronunciation of the students of that class over students who were in more advanced classes. At this point, we must be careful not to assume that a definite amelioration was obtained over the other students, but it is our contention that this experiment should be continued with a normal

class of 25 weeks and their DLPT results should be compared with the results of the previous classes.

Recommendations

Students should not be given any books for a period of at least two weeks--and perhaps for as long as four weeks. The instructors should present the material only orally with the help of tapes and visual aids. Emphasis should be put on correct pronunciation. After such a period of time, books should be given to the students except for the ones with the daily homework dialogue.

TRIVIAL PURSUIT AS A LANGUAGE-LEARNING GAME

William M. Bueler

Trivial Pursuit is a popular game of questions and answers on various aspects of life. Probably a majority of DLI students have played the original English version. It can also be used as a vehicle for language learning.

RULES

In the English version questions are on cards, with each card containing questions from color-coded categories: Geography (blue); Entertainment (pink); History (yellow); Art and Literature (brown); Science and Nature (green); Sports and Leisure (orange). The basic rules can be summarized as follows: the roll of a die will determine movement of each team's "token" (in the shape of a pie with six wedge-shaped sections) on the playing board. The board is in the shape of a wheel with six hubs and an outer rim containing 42 spaces. Each space has one of six colors (or a gray "roll again" space), with each color corresponding to one of the question categories. After the roll of the die determines which space a team's token is to land on, the other team will read the question for the color of that space. If the question is answered correctly, the team gets another turn, and this continues until a question is missed. There are six "wedge-awarding" spaces, one for each color. A team must land on each of these, and answer a question from its category, in order to move along one of the hubs to the center of the board for a final, game-winning question.

There are certain other refinements in the rules, but this summary will be sufficient for the present purpose, which is to show how the game can be adapted for language learning.

CHINESE TRIVIAL PURSUIT

I have developed a Chinese version of the game, using the board but not the questions of the original game. The same approach should be usable for any language. The Chinese game seems most appropriate for students in the final phase of the basic course or the intermediate course, but in languages less difficult than Chinese such a game might be appropriate for use earlier in the basic course.

The primary task in preparing the game lies in writing the questions. A mere Chinese translation of the question cards of the original game did not seem appropriate, because the original questions

are very much centered on American culture. It seemed better to write new questions with more focus on vocabulary and information of value in studying Chinese and learning about China. With this in mind I have changed the question categories to the following (with their colors):

1. Green: China--History and Geography
2. Blue: Asia and the Pacific
3. Brown: U. S. --History and Geography
4. Orange: Recent World History (Events since World War II)
5. Yellow: Sports, Literature and Entertainment
6. Pink: Miscellaneous

Let us look briefly at examples of the kinds of questions in each category. (NOTE: Questions are asked in Chinese. They must be answered in Chinese in complete sentences, but English pronunciation can be used for non-Chinese proper names.)

China--History and Geography

a. What is the most populous province of China?
(*Answer*: Sichuan. *Complete sentence answer*:
The most populous province in China is Sichuan.

b. What dynasty ruled China prior to the Qing Dynasty?
(Ming)

c. How far is Taiwan from the China Mainland:
1. 30 miles; 2. 100 miles;
3. 10 kilometers; 4. 70 kilometers.
(100 miles)

(NOTE: For geographic questions students cannot look at maps--unless on the front wall of the room, where not looking would be an unrealistic requirement.)

d. What is the date of China's National Day?
(Oct. 1)

e. In what year was Hong Kong ceded to Britain?
(1842)

f. In what century did Marco Polo visit China?
(13th)

Asia and the Pacific

a. Japan is made up of islands; what is the largest island?
(Honshu)

b. Which is largest: 1. Japan; 2. Outer Mongolia; 3. Pakistan; 4. Burma?
(Outer Mongolia)

c. The Prime Minister of India, Indira Gandhi, was assassinated, what was her father's name?
([Jawaharlal] Nehru)

d. What is the northern of the two main islands of New Zealand called?
(North Island)

e. Prior to becoming independent, what was Bangladesh known as?
(East Pakistan)

f. What is the first day of winter in Australia?
(June 21)

U.S.--History and Geography

a. In what state is America's highest waterfall?
(California [Yosemite])

b. Why is Mrs. O'Leary's cow famous in American history?
(Started Great Fire of Chicago in 1871 by kicking over a lamp)

c. Who was the Vice-Presidential candidate of the Democratic Party in 1920?
(Franklin Delano Roosevelt)

d. What is the capital of Wyoming?
(Cheyenne)

e. Who was the fifth President of the United States?
(James Monroe)

f. What is the only place in the U.S. where you can be in four states at the same time? Name the states.
(Four Corners: Arizona, Colorado, Utah, New Mexico)

Sports, Literature and Entertainment

a. America's most famous movie is called *Pião* in

Chinese. Who was the female lead?
(Vivien Leigh)

(NOTE: Students may guess that the movie is *Gone With the Wind*, or they may want to use the dictionary to look up piāo -theywill discover that it means *float* or *drift* and this may suggest *gone with the wind*.)

b. Who holds the world long jump record?
(Bob Beamon)

c. In 1969, John Wayne won an Oscar for Best Actor.
What was the movie he played in?
(True Grit)

d. There is an American novel translated as *Fènnùde Pútáo*in Chinese. Who is the author?
(John Steinbeck)

(NOTE: *Fènnù* means *anger, wrath; pútáo* means *grapes--Grapes of Wrath*)

e. An Olympic swimming champion became a famous moviestar. What was the swimmer's name and what movie role did he play?
(John Weismuller; Tarzan)

f. What company spends the most money on television advertising?
(Proctor and Gamble)

Miscellaneous

(NOTE: This category allows questions in science, math, non-U.S. geography, linguistics and other areas where it is useful for students to know how to say relatively simple, everyday things.)

a. How much is 42 divided by 6?
(7)

(NOTE: The obvious point here is simply to see if the students understand how the process of division is said in Chinese.)

b. What is the second largest fresh water lake in the world?
(Lake Victoria in Africa)

c. What is the largest planet in the solar system?
(Jupiter)

d. How many millimeters are there in a kilometer?
(One million)

e. What is the square root of 81?
(9)

f. How do you say *adjective* [use the English word] in Chinese?

(*xíngróngcí*)

PREPARATION

If a native-language instructor has any problem understanding the basic rules of play, it is a virtual certainty that every class will have at least one student who can explain them to the other students as well as the instructor. Thus, the only real preparation for this game is the writing of the questions. About 40 questions in each category should suffice. In a recent three-hour game between two intermediate classes, about 20 questions from each category were used (a total of about 120).

Most native-language instructors should have little difficulty writing questions about their own parts of the world. Suitable questions about U.S. history, sports, media, etc., may be more difficult. Good sources for questions could be the *World Almanac* and departmental Military Language Instructors--most of whom will probably have played the original English version of the game and should have a feel for what their peers would know.

Because of the relative unfamiliarity of most students with subject matter related to foreign countries, an overenthusiastic attempt to use the game to present little-known facts about a target language country is likely to be counterproductive. Students will simply lose interest if asked a string of questions about obscure Chinese poets, Russian industrial cities, French wines or Italian painters they have never heard of. Therefore, questions about target language countries should be easier than those about the U.S.

RULE CHANGES

Some new rules and minor rule changes from the original game seem appropriate:

1. In the Chinese game, the instructor reads all the questions from lists, rather than having the opposing teams read them from cards. This is a matter of convenience. However, there is no inherent reason why, with enough time, one could not prepare question cards for the student teams to read to their opponents, as in the original English game.

2. Since the questions sometimes have vocabulary the students have not studied, I allow them to use the dictionary. With Chinese, dictionary use is cumbersome and time-consuming, and could delay the game to the point of boredom for other participants, if each team tried to look up every word about which it might not feel totally confident. Therefore, I give them a time limit for dictionary use, which varies from one minute for basic course students to half a minute for more advanced students. During this time team members are able to look up more than one word, provided they decide beforehand which member will look up what.

3. Since the Chinese game moves more slowly than the English version, I have instituted another rule to help keep up the interest of teams when it is not their turn. If the team whose turn it is cannot answer the question, the other team (or the next in line if there are more than two) can answer it--except for true-false or multiple choice questions. If the second team answers correctly, it gets an extra roll of the die on its next turn. It can then choose between two rolls of the die in moving on the board. This doubles its chances of landing on a color it wants--either a wedge-awarding space or a color category in which it feels more confident of knowing the answer.

4. In order to avoid too long a string of successful answers by one team, thereby causing other teams to become impatient, I limit each team to three successive questions. If a team successfully answers the third one, it can get one extra roll on its next or a later turn, even though it must now turn over the die to the next team. Extra rolls of the die can be accumulated and saved for use when most helpful.

(NOTE: Rule changes 2, 3, and 4 above were not planned in advance. They were all ad hoc changes which emerged as problems developed during play. Other instructors in other languages might not use any of these; or they might well adopt different rules appropriate to different needs.)

CONCLUSION

Students have found the game both fun and helpful in vocabulary building. The game gives them a strong incentive to focus on previously unlearned words and their use, and this concentration is a boon to retention. From the instructors point of view, careful question selection can provide an excellent vehicle for introducing vocabulary in many areas, including geography, history, science, sports, entertainment, current events and military affairs.

COMING OF AGE

(TESOL CONFERENCE REPORT)

Deanna Tovar

The 1987 **Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages** (TESOL) Conference was held in Miami Beach, Florida from 21 - 25 April. Since TESOL celebrated its 21st year of existence, this years' theme was titled appropriately *Coming of Age*. The conference offered over 75 presentations each day which consisted of demonstrations, workshops, papers, colloquia, and informal discussion groups. In this report I will summarize some of the more salient sessions I attended.

A colloquium titled *Current Research on Second Language Learning Strategies* was presented by Rebecca Oxford, Anita Wenden, and Anna Uhl Chamot. Oxford (Center for Applied Linguistics) has been conducting large scale factor-analytic studies of the learning strategies of adult foreign language students. She began her presentation by defining learning strategies as techniques students use in acquiring language and emphasized that they are skills that can be taught. She further explained that students choose a particular learning strategy depending on the environment, their experience with the target language and other languages, general world knowledge, interest, and motivation.

Subsequently, Oxford discussed the reasons why learning strategies are important and key points from learning strategies research. She cited the following as reasons why learning strategies are important:

- Learning new strategies is related to successful language acquisition (learner training).

- Using appropriate learning strategies aids "active learning" (cognitive theory).

- Addressing learning strategies gives teachers an enhanced, expanded role.

Oxford also offered these key points from previous learning strategies research:

Teachers are generally unfamiliar with their students'

learning strategies.

- Students do not use the widest range of learning strategies.

The speaker pointed out that strategy use is related to: the stage/level of language learning, attitude and expectations, setting, the nature of the task, personality and general learning style, as well as other characteristics of the learner, the situation, and the language. As a conclusion to the presentation, Oxford described the learning strategies study she conducted which involved 1,200 first and second year language learners (French, Spanish, German, Russian, and Italian) in universities. The five factors discussed by Oxford in her learning strategies survey and examples of features of each factor follow:

Factor 1 - Formal, Rule-Related Practice (medium-high frequency)
- . finds LI - L2 contrasts
- . uses LI structural knowledge
- . guesses meanings from situation
- . infers by analogy
- . finds cognates

Factor 2 - Functional Practice (low frequency)
- . studies culture of language
- . teaches peers
- . imitates L2 speakers

Factor 3 - Resourceful, Independent Language Learning Techniques (low-medium frequency)
- . summarizes L2 information
- . outlines main ideas
- . lists new information
- . focuses on specifics
- . highlights while reading
- . drills words
- . practices grammar
- . takes notes in L2

Factor 4 - Standard Study Habits (medium-high frequency)
- . prepares for class
- . continues even when lesson is hard
- . is not easily distracted
- . answers questions mentally
- . avoids rote memorization

Factor 5 - Input Elicitation (medium-high frequency)

- requests slower speech
- uses communication tricks
- uses synonyms
- uses background knowledge in conversation

Oxford concluded the discussion by listing 6 key variables affecting learning strategy use in the study:

1. motivation*
2. sex**
3. self-ratings of language proficiency
4. course
5. major
6. years of language learning

Oxford listed such future research themes as the effect of motivation on strategy choice, the learner's role in generating strategies, and the influence of sex differences on choice of learning strategies.

Double Cloze = Active Participation in a Conversation Class was a demonstration session which involved participants in completing a listening cloze (a song). Two versions of the same (printed) text with different words deleted were given to the participants. After listening to the song and filling in deletions, participants were asked to work in pairs and check their responses. This was an excellent activity for integrating listening, reading, speaking, writing, and culture. To enhance the effectiveness of this activity, teachers may select songs containing structural, lexical, or topical features relevant to the current lesson. Additionally, the use of music during this type of interactive comprehension technique may help to lower the affective filter.

Coaching: An Effective Follow-Up to Instructor Training was a workshop which focused on a California inservice project that incorporates a coaching component. The presenters began by describing the eight-hour core workshop/institute that is offered to new ESL teachers of adults. The training is conducted by experienced trainers who work in teams providing skills development and coaching guidance to participants. The skills development portion of the workshop includes lesson analysis and design and language teaching techniques. Coaching is then explained and demonstrated.

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*Motivation affected 4 out of 5 factors.

**Females chose to use more strategies, more intensely.

In peer coaching, instructors working in pairs observe and provide feedback to a peer as a follow-up to the training session. Mentor coaching, which is also included, is done by a more experienced teacher working with a new teacher. In both types of coaching, teachers follow three basic steps in the post-observation/feedback discussion.

1. **Create receptivity** - The teacher/observer begins by thanking the teacher/presenter for allowing the visit and points out positive features of the class

2. **Review the lesson** - The teacher/observer elicits the presenters' feelings about how the lesson was conducted and then reviews the techniques used during the lesson. It is during this step that feedback forms are used.

3. **Obtain commitment** - The two teachers discuss the areas where improvement is needed and decide which steps will be taken before the next observation. Finally, a time is agreed upon for follow-up observation.

The ideas presented in this workshop may contribute to the implementation of the team teaching concept at DLIFLC.

Using Dialog Journals in Teacher Training was the title of a paper which analyzed dialogue journals written by a class of ESL and bilingual teachers to record reactions to assigned readings and comment on new techniques they tried. Teacher's professional growth, teacher/instructor relationships, understanding and application of reading assignments, and use of journals to individualize instruction were described.

The idea of using journals in teacher training stems from the use of journals in language classrooms where students are asked to communicate in writing with the teacher. Students' comments may deal with the course of instruction, methods, particular problems and successes, etc.

Interactive Language Teaching in the Participatory Classroom was presented by Wilga Rivers, Peter Strevens, Gail Robinson and others. Rivers (Harvard University) began the presentation with the following opening, "Interaction is a process by which students can be motivated to communicate." She asked attendees to examine the roles of imagination, innovation, and dynamism in their language classrooms. Finally, Rivers urged teachers to recognize that their students are full of ideas and can recommend topics that will hold their

interest. Rivers' final comments regarding the participatory classroom were, "What we have to learn to do, we learn by doing."

Strevens (Chairman of the International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language) suggested that, in a participatory classroom, students must have problems to solve, tasks to carry out, and projects to do together. He also believes that these activities must be of interest to the students. Strevens recommended that teachers make inventories of topics in which students are interested and use these inventories as a basis for activities.

Achieving Grammatical Accuracy: Advice for ESL/EFL Students was a colloquium which included Marianne Celce-Murcia, Diane Larsen-Freeman, and Tracy Terrell. This session explored the usefulness of direct teaching of grammar and responsibilities students have for their own language learning.

Celce-Murcia, (University of California, Los Angeles) discussed the role of grammar in English for academic purposes courses and pointed out that feedback and correction are necessary. She discussed two grammar correction strategies: interview analysis for spoken language and reformulation for written language.

Interview analysis was described as a one-on-one tutorial in which the student and teacher spend 30-40 minutes discussing a topic. The discussion is recorded and transcribed by the student. An optional follow-up writing activity asks students to use the transcript as the basis for a written paper. This assignment is then turned in to the teacher who reviews the paper for grammatical accuracy and returns it to the student. Celce-Murcia stated that experimentation with this technique at UCLA has demonstrated significant student improvement.

Reformulation was then described as a correction strategy for written grammar. In this technique, developed by A. Cohen, non-native speakers produce a text which is subsequently rewritten by a native speaker without changing the meaning/intention. A classroom adaptation of the strategy requires the teacher to list phrases from the composition that need reformulation and then to ask the student to rewrite the composition. In the concluding remarks regarding grammar correction, Celce-Murcia suggested language teachers should:

- begin with student products;
- teach grammar in context;
- give students focused feedback so students learn to identify and correct their own errors.

Diane Larsen-Freeman (School for International Training), stated that "teaching grammar makes sense," especially since some language learners are unsuccessful if they are not given formal instruction in syntax. She cited fossilization as yet another reason for teaching grammar and referenced the work of Carlos Yorio. She teaches grammar based on her response to the question: "What can I give my students that they can't get elsewhere?" and referred to a Krashen article which deals with the essential contributions of formal instruction. As contributing factors, she cited isolation of grammar rules and the possibility of error correction. Both factors, according to Larsen-Freeman, provide the proper focus to heighten students' awareness of what they need to work on. She concluded by suggesting that teachers give students a reason to communicate in a game-like way.

Tracy D. Terrell (University of California, San Diego) described the standard definition of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) in the following manner:

- Input "feeds" Language Acquisition Device (LAD) which results in acquisition.
- Affective factors act as a filter to keep input from LAD.
- Conscious grammatical knowledge is used as a monitor to edit and make minor corrections in output.
- Input must be comprehensible $i + 1$ and learner must attend to the message rather than the form.
- Output functions primarily to generate more input, the only necessary and sufficient factor needed to account for L2 acquisition.

Further, Terrell suggested various speculative hypotheses which he cautioned "await future evidence from research for revision and confirmation/disconfirmation." According to him;

1. Input interacts with general cognitive learning abilities to produce acquisition (i.e., no special LAD is assumed).
2. Affective factors act as positive motivators to seek out and attend to input (cf instrumental, integrative, and assimilative motivation).
3. Conscious grammatical knowledge has a variety of functions in addition to serving as the source for the conscious editing process.
4. Interaction with comprehensible input far above current i, with the learner attending only to message, develops listening strategies and the acquisition of monomorphemic

words, but results in the non-acquisition of current grammatical patterns. Comprehensible input at $i + 1$ allows the possibility of focus on both meaning and form.
5. The result of acquisition is defined as the ability to comprehend and produce the target language.

Terrell indicated that the level of L2 acquisition is directly related to the level and type of positive motivation of the learner and to the level of interaction with comprehensible input in communicative situations. Complete acquisition occurs only in the case of strong assimilative motivation and ample opportunities for comprehensible input and self expression in the target language.

Terrell identified the following functions of grammar in "Standard SLA theory:"

1. To monitor written output or prepared speech.
2. To make minor corrections in oral output when speaking (optimal monitors). Additionally, he presented the following grammar functions as his "modifications:"
3. To increase motivation of some grammar-oriented adult learners.
4. To decrease the amount of "noise" and "distractions" in the input.
5. To make a particular grammatical form or pattern more salient in the input and therefore easier to attend to.
6. To modify the form of the input to provide for more opportunities to bind/access particular forms or patterns.
7. To call attention to errors which may be self-corrected with the monitor.
8. To systematize forms or patterns allowing the learner to understand and produce forms or patterns which have not yet been acquired.

Terrell stated that "learning" does play an important role in the study of language and provided the following as general reasons to "teach grammar:"

1. Students want to be taught grammar; not teaching students grammar can raise their filters.
2. Grammar can make input more comprehensible.
3. A knowledge of grammar may help the student organize the input.

Terrell cautioned that if students are forced to work at very high levels of input, they will develop strategic input, but this may not aid their output. His concluding remarks had to do with correction. He suggested that teachers should try to get students to self-correct and that correction be done judiciously.

Promoting Fluency Through Problem-Solving and Values-Clarification Activities demonstrated how these types of activities can promote fluency and communication skills in the classroom. Participants were asked to engage in a variety of activities and then discuss their experiences using problem-solving and values-clarification activities. Some examples of activities presented at the session were:

1. "Dear Abby" problem situations.
2. Student/teacher invented problems (based on students level of proficiency) for students to discuss and solve.
3. Proverbs - common proverbs are written down on slips of paper which are cut in half and mixed. Students working in groups, must piece them together.
4. Values Survey Sheet - a. Students list a set of human ideals and are asked to choose, in groups, the 5 most desired ideals in life.

Of the 4 plenary sessions offered at TESOL this year, one of the most relevant plenary sessions was presented by Peter Strevens who described experiential learning and teaching as one of the peaks of excellence in language instruction. Strevens also provided a set of principles for effective language teaching which were developed by the Council of Europe. Those principles indicate that:

(1) Language teaching should be learner centered.
(2) Learning should be life-related.
(3) Learning and teaching should be participatory.
(4) Learning and teaching should be based on the concept of language for communication and thus on the communicative approach.
(5) Learning should be "by doing."
(6) As far as possible, language learning and teaching should be available throughout the citizen's life.

Visiting the publishers' exhibits proved to be a fruitful experience because I was able to examine numerous reference works and texts dealing with ESL/EFL methodology appropriate for teacher

education and classroom use. Following is a list and brief description of texts I reviewed at the TESOL publishers' exhibits:

- *Methodology in TESOL - A Book of Readings* edited by Michael Long and Jack C. Richards (Newbury House, 1987). The anthology represents a variety of viewpoints on central topics in ESL/EFL.

- *The Non-Stop Discussion Workbook* by George Rooks (Newbury House, 1981). This book presents thirty problem-solving situations/dilemmas designed to generate discussions in which the students do almost all of the talking. The activities are within level range 2 and above on the proficiency scale and work well in small groups so that students can discuss, analyze, and solve the problem. Although the book is designed for intermediate and advanced students of English, it can be adapted to foreign language teaching.

- *The ETS Oral Proficiency Kit*, prepared by Judith Liskin-Gasparro, (Heinle & Heinle in cooperation with ETS, 1987) consists of a booklet which contains background information about the oral interview and the rating scale, information on how the interview is conducted, and discussion of practical applications for the classroom. Cassette tapes of oral proficiency interviews in French, German, Spanish, and ESL are also available and the recorded interviews are discussed in the booklet.

- *Teaching English With Video* (Longman Handbooks for Language Teachers, 1985) is an introduction and guide to the many uses of video in language teaching. The book discusses hardware and software, video use in the classroom, the role of video in teacher training, and self-access by the learner to video.

- *The Media: Catalysts for Communicative Language Learning* by Joyce Penfield (Addison-Wesley, 1987) shows language teachers how to adapt media resources used by native speakers in foreign language instruction.

There was a lot of enthusiasm in the sessions I attended and while it is impossible for me to describe all the presentations, I hope I have in some way been able to share some of the exciting ideas I was exposed to at this worthwhile conference.

REVIEWS

Language Competence: Implications for National Security.
By Kurt E. Mueller.
New York, NY: Praeger.
1986. Pp 168. $9.95.

In this book Kurt Mueller examines "historical documents to determine the Armed Forces' need for language skills." His excellent credentials--broad experience in the academic world as well as stints at the Defense Language Institute and the U.S. Army Command and General Staff College--recommend his work to the student of national security affairs.

The book consists of six chapters. The first, an introduction, is a simple argument for language competence in which the author observes that ". . . no other profession outside that of diplomacy is as concerned with the relationship between a nation and its neighbors as is the military." The rest of the book is devoted to a historical study of the linguistic aspect of that concern.

The second chapter, "The View from Within: Defense Looks at its Own Language Needs," cites numerous studies--some antedating World War I--of the military requirements for language skills. The mere fact that so many studies have been made, all resulting in the same conclusion, begs the question--Why hasn't the situation been corrected? Mueller cites several observations by Ken Booth which provide a partial answer: "strategists as a body are remarkably incurious about the character of their enemies and allies," "threat assessment is ...seriously vulnerable to ethnocentric distortion," and "strategists as a profession have not accommodated, in deed or word, to the problems of conflict and stability in a multicultural world."

The third chapter, "Historical Need for Language Skills," draws data from every major military conflict of this century. The references to the language problems in the Korean conflict demonstrate the full extent and complexity of language impact on military operations. The linguistic requirements of a successful drive through the Soviet Empire are not alluded to, but they would be many times greater than the tragic problem encountered in Korea. In this century we have waged war only as an ally and only against alliances. The apparent political desirability of having even a token presence of foreign armies allied with us on the battlefield places an additional requirement on planners to provide an adequate number of trained linguists. The issue is greatly complicated when

one reflects on the changing political climates and military fortunes which often affect the make-up of alliances.

The fourth chapter describes how we have historically met our language needs focusing primarily on World War II. The reader should note that language training was undertaken *after* the outbreak of hostilities in all of the major wars of this century. To assume that future conflict will proceed at a slow enough pace to allow us to learn to communicate with and understand both our friends and our foes may be unwise.

The fifth chapter is devoted to "Academic - Military Cooperation." The key portion of this chapter is the following: "An honest appraisal of any reliance on academic institutions to meet military language needs, though, has to recognize the shortcomings of current practices in schools and colleges. They simply do not devote sufficient time to developing language skills to make their graduates immediately employable in a position requiring language competence." The author suggests that the implementation of proficiency-based curricula would contribute to greater competence. However, before any reliance can be placed on the academic community to assist in the defense of their country, the hostility with which the academic subculture views the military subculture must somehow be dissipated.

In the sixth chapter, "What We Need to Progress," Mueller makes several suggestions to solve our problem: that Army officers acquire language skill during their undergraduate education, that the Department of the Army develop a policy of area orientation for officers, that cultural training be undertaken, that language problems be a part of all war games, that more attention be given to language maintenance for officers, that language assets be identified, that better materials be provided and, finally, that language skills in the Reserve be improved.

I feel that Mueller's book could be read profitably by all those who are interested in the general topic. Mueller does succeed in providing a historical framework for the problem. However, a more complete analysis is required in order to institute the changes which would provide the necessary quantity and quality of linguists. The single most glaring fault with the study is that it ignores the enlisted members of the military profession. The bulk of the linguist positions and the bulk of the training load of the Defense Language Institute (DLI) are restricted to the enlisted ranks, i.e. non-officer. The second and perhaps even greater omission is the lack of any discussion on the problem of retaining language trained individuals. These two items are more intertwined than they might seem.

Language Competence should be required reading for the defense and intelligence establishment and all leaders in the military language field. A careful reading of this book, supplemented by discussions with linguists in the field (that is to say, with enlisted personnel) could produce positive results with very little real expenditure of funds.

John B. Goodrick

Editor's Note: Dr Mueller was an Instructor in the German Department at DLIFLC and was a staff member with the Modern Language Association. He is currently a key staff member with the National Council on Foreign Language and International Studies. He has also been an Army Reserve Officer for many years.

A Thousand and One Nights,
retold in Arabic
by Michel Nicola.
Book 1. Troy, MI:
International Book Center,
1985. Pp 54. $3.95.

In view of modern theories of language learning/acquisition, extracurricular material not assigned for any class but perused only for pleasure takes on special importance, for it is in such perusal that the "affective filter" is at its lowest. Preferably, such material would be: (1) of interest to adult foreign language students and (2) not be too far above or below their level of competence in the language.

In Arabic, additional reading material for beginners is scarce or nonexistent. This booklet is a handwritten version of the famous *One Thousand and One Nights*, prepared specifically for English speaking students of Arabic. Book I is the first of a series and includes the story of how the fabled Shehrazade came to entertain the king with her tales, plus the stories she told him in the first nine nights.

Clearly, the subject is of adult interest. Translations of the *Nights* have fascinated Western readers, both children and adults, for centuries. Moreover, the book is arranged in such a way as to accommodate beginning readers of a variety of levels of competence. It is in three parts of increasing difficulty, and each part is followed by a "glossary" containing all the words and idioms in that and the preceding parts. Thus, the readers are neither left to their own devices in trying to unravel the text, nor forced to rely on whatever course they may happen to be taking. They can choose to read it independently, and for no other reason than that it is fun.

On the negative side, the most serious shortcoming is probably the total lack of any cultural notes about the book or parts of it. A frequent comment made by students when they have grasped a story is "weird." The experience is a sort of cultural

shock. Some historical and cultural background notes plus some explanations of such beings as Ifrits and Jinnis would have been very useful in preparing the reader for the enchanted atmosphere of the *Nights*.

Despite these and a few other minor shortcomings, many students have read Book I of *A Thousand and One Nights* with considerable interest and are awaiting the appearance of Book 2 with anticipation.

Michel Nasr

Letter From a DLIFLC Graduate

Dear Editor:

Writing the review of Dr. Mueller's book (see *Review* Section) encouraged me to supplement it with the following opinion. None of the examples taken from military studies of the language problem seem to concern themselves with enlisted linguists and their problems. Typically, a soldier enlists in the defense of his country, is sent to basic training, and then goes on for further training in some military specialty. This is how most of the students of DLIFLC get there. Upon completion of their training, they are sent on a utilization tour. When they complete their tour, they have the option of returning to civilian life or making a career commitment. A disappointingly small number exercise their option to reenlist. This is one of the weakest links in the training of linguists. All authorities agree that the training of a good linguist requires years of hard work. The military cannot continue the cycle of training a soldier who leaves after language study, causing the need to recruit and train another, and the process repeats itself again and again. The question of training enough linguists would disappear if we would only make a commitment to train and retain the ones who have already spent four years starting a career.

One of the most important aspects of human nature that a leader or a manager must never forget is that all humans desire to excel and to enjoy the success that is the reward of hard labor. The military linguist must be motivated, or, at the very least, must not have his self-motivation killed. To train an individual for a year in the Polish language, send him off to Fort Carson to wash tanks accomplishes several things. First, it kills any desire on the part of the individual to continue working on his language and mocks the effort already expended. Second, it deprives the country of the opportunity to develop a novice into a true professional. Third, it is a waste of the money already expended, and it will cause more money to be expended for training additional novices to the minimal level. Fourth, the tanks are clean--undoubtedly a necessity, but at this price? In the military it is too easy to blame the commander for his faults and the failures of his subordinates. If two of the suggestions Dr. Mueller makes were adopted, this sorry scenario might be avoided--

the establishment of area orientation for officers and the inclusion of language problems as part of war games. An officer who has personally sat through the endless pattern drills and irregular verb exercises at DLIFLC would be far more likely to appreciate the need for continuous language training, as well as the need for common military skills. Higher ranking officers who failed a field problem or were bested in a war game due to the lack of sufficiently trained linguists would be far more insistent upon adequate retention and training. If the marksmanship of our artillery personnel is as poor as our linguistic capabilities, then the defense of the nation requires much larger artillery shells than are currently available.

I believe that the problem of having sufficient numbers of high quality linguists in all languages available to the military requires several innovations. First, existing regulations concerning language maintenance must be complied with on the part of all concerned, most particularly the commanders. Second, the first tour should be considered an apprenticeship and it should be followed with an extensive follow-up course. Third, all linguists should be made to understand that their complete education includes at a minimum a bachelor's degree, and in the case of higher NCO's and Warrants, a master's degree. Fourth, unit commanders must at all times bear in mind that their support and leadership is required to accomplish training objectives. Fifth, status and recognition must be conferred upon the linguist soldier. Motivating the linguist does not require more money or even rank but rather simple recognition of his needs and minimal support required to be a success. Such recognition and status would guarantee that linguists would no longer be insulted away from the military service of their country.

No discussion of the military language program can leave unmentioned the reserve forces. Most military linguists are reservists, not active duty personnel. There is currently a lack of coherent training programs for these individuals, and it is upon them that the bulk of the linguistic work will fall in the event of mobilization. In the fifties and early sixties there was a popular phrase "more bang for the buck." If the military managers would agree to pay for the tuition and books for relevant courses at local educational institutions, the reservists would view this not as financial assistance, but rather as recognition of their worth and the effort that excellence requires. This would produce a lot of bang for very small bucks.

Sincerely,

John B. Goodrick
Bremerton, WA

Editor's Note: MAJ. Albert E. Lewis, Assistant Dean of the School of Romance Languages, confirms that Goodrick's comments on training and utilization are generally true but adds that these problems are extremely complex and are being addressed by the Services. He also cites better opportunities in the civilian sector as a major reason many leave the Service. Additionally, he notes improvement in requirements for officers and NCOs to prove language maintenance annually through the DLPT.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE MATERIALS AT CAL

The *SURVEY of Materials for the Study of the Uncommonly Taught Languages* is an annotated bibliography of basic tools of access which includes information on all modern languages whenever adequate materials for studying them are located. Information on standard English, French, German, Italian, Russian, and Spanish is not included.

The bibliography was published in 1976 in eight fascicles, with the arrangement of languages and language groups within the following divisions: Western Europe/Pidgins and Creoles (European-based); Eastern Europe and Soviet Union; The Middle East and North Africa; South Asia; Eastern Asia; Sub-Saharan Africa; Southeast Asia and the Pacific; North, Central and South America.

The primary emphasis of the collected material is for use by the adult learner whose native language is English, although some materials of interest mainly to the teacher, the specialist and/or the textbook writer have been incorporated. Under grammars, texts have been added which require knowledge of modern linguistic terminology. Books in print and available commercially are included, as well as those out of print, forthcoming or of limited accessibility.

In the case of languages for which there appear to be no adequate or recent texts in English, entries include older books, technical studies, and books in foreign languages. Pre-1940 bilingual dictionaries are listed when they apparently constitute the sole or major source for the language, or when they have appeared as reprints.

The 1976 edition was updated with a supplementary volume in 1983. Both publications are available through the ERIC Document Reproduction Service. For further information, please contact the ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics at the CAL address listed below.

The *Survey* was expanded in 1983 to include a broader scope of information. The bibliography was moved from a partially automated system to a computerized one. In addition, the database is now expanding to include information on available human resources, including both trained teachers and researchers; references to and descriptive information on testing and evaluation instruments available or under development in these languages; and similar information on computer-assisted instructional programs or other higher technology-using approaches to the less commonly taught languages. The database also includes a file identifying publishers and distributors in the U.S. (primarily) and abroad who are able to supply print and computer assisted instructional material to the general public.

This project is funded by the U.S. Department of Education.

This project is highly dependent on the continued efforts of personnel involved in the teaching, development of materials and research in the less commonly taught languages, and staff of the *Survey* welcome any information which may inform the database. For further information contact:

Dora Johnson
Project Director

Survey of Materials for the
Study of the Uncommonly
Taught Languages
Center for Applied
Linguistics
1118 22nd Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20037

Telephone: (202) 429-9292

FORTHCOMING MEETINGS 1987/1988

S27-30 December. **Modern Language Association Conference**; San Francisco, CA. MLA; 10 Astor Pl.; New York, NY 10003.

27-30 December. **Linguistic Society of America**; 1325 18th Street, N.W., Suite 211, Washington, DC 20036. San Francisco, CA.

28-30 December. **The American Association of Teachers of Slavic and East European Languages** (AAASS affiliate); San Francisco, CA. Sanford Couch, Secretary-Treasurer, AATSEEL, Foreign Languages Department, Arizona State University; Tempe, AZ 85287.

1988

19-21 February. **Society for Cross Cultural Research**; El Paso, TX. Alice Schlegel, Program Chair, Department of Anthropology, University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ 85721.

5-9 April. **American Educational Research Association**; New Orleans, LA. 1230 17th Street, NW. Washington, DC 20036.

7-10 April. **Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages**; New York; Northeast Conference, Box 623, Middlebury, VT 05753.

13-16 April. **Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages** (in conjunction with the Colorado Congress of Language Teachers and Southwest Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages); Denver. Gerard L. Ervin, Department of Slavics, 232 Cunz Hall, Ohio State University, Columbus, OH 43210.

13-16 April. **Southwest Conference on Language Teaching** (in conjunction with Colorado Congress of Language Teachers and Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages); Denver. Alan Meredith, Brigham Young University, 4038 JKHB, Provo, UT 84602.

CONTRIBUTORS

Articles

Tracy David Terrell (Ph.D.,University of Texas at Austin) is a Professor of Linguistics and Director of the Language Program at the University of California, San Diego. He has published extensively in Spanish dialectology and sociolinguistics. He is known to language teachers for the development of the Natural Approach, an input-based methodology used by both foreign language teachers and colleagues in TESOL.

Heidi Byrnes (Ph.D., Georgetown University, 1979) is Associate Professor of German at Georgetown University. She is a frequent presenter at professional meetings and has published in numerous professional journals with the emphasis on incorporating insights from second language acquisition research into teaching practice. She is a certified tester and master trainer for the ACTFL/ETS method of assessing oral proficiency in German.

Faculty Exchange

René de Barros (M.A., Ph.D. Candidate, University of Chicago) is Instructor of French and Spanish, School of Romance Languages, Defense Language Institute.

William M. Bueler (M..A., University of Colorado) is Instructor of Chinese Mandarin, School of Asian Languages, Defense Language Institute.

Deanna Tovar (M.A., University of San Francisco) is a teacher trainer in the Faculty and Staff Development Division, Defense Language Institute. She also serves as an ACTFL oral proficiency tester trainer.

Reviews

Jo'n B. Goodrick (B.A., Portland State University) is a DLIFLC graduate and member of the U.S. Army Reserve.

Michel Nasr (American University of Beirut) is course writer and Instructor of Arabic School of Middle East Languages, Defense Language Institute. Currently he is enrolled in the MATFL Program (Master of Arts in Teaching Foreign Languages) at the Monterey Institute of International Studies.

INFORMATION FOR CONTRIBUTORS

SUBMISSION OF MANUSCRIPTS (PROVISIONAL)

Purpose and Scope

The purpose of this internal publication is to increase and share professional knowledge among DLI faculty and staff, as well as to promote professional communication within the Defense Foreign Language Program.

The success of *Dialog on Language Instruction* depends on your cooperation and support. We encourage you to submit an article, a review, a description of innovative classroom activities, a news item or even a comment on language instruction. Your manuscript may deal with the following areas: (1) instructional methods and techniques; (2) curriculum and materials development; (3) testing and evaluation; (4) implications and applications of research from related fields such as linguistics, education, communication, psychology, social sciences, and other related fields; (5) assessment of needs within the profession.

Articles

Manuscripts should not exceed 20 double-spaced pages. They should be accompanied by an abstract and a list of references. The abstract of not more than 200 words should identify the purpose of the article, provide an overview of the content, and suggest findings.

The list of references should be submitted on a separate page of the manuscript with the centered heading: REFERENCES. The entries should be arranged alphabetically by surnames of authors. The sample list of references below illustrate format for bibliographic entries.

> Harris, David P. 1969. *Testing English as a Second Language*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.
>
> Dulay, Heidi and Marina Burt. 1974. "Errors and strategies in child second language acquisition." *TESOL Quarterly* 16 (1):93-95.

Reference citations in the text of manuscripts should include the name of the author of the work cited, the date of the work, and when quoting, the page numbers on which the material that is being quoted

originally appeared, e.g. (Jones 1982:235-238). All works cited in the manuscript must appear in the list of references, and conversely, all works included in the list of references must be cited in the manuscript.

Footnotes should be used for substantive information only and each footnote should be typed directly below the line to which it refers. They should be numbered serially throughout the manuscript and each one should be set off from the text with a horizontal line above and a horizontal line below.

Faculty Exchange

This section provides an opportunity for faculty to share ideas through brief articles up to two double-spaced pages on innovative classroom practices, such as suggestions on communicative activities, team teaching, use of media and realia, and adaptation of authentic materials. Each sample of a model classroom activity should state the purpose, provide instructions and, if applicable, give supporting texts or illustrations.

Reviews

Manuscripts should not exceed two double-spaced pages. Reviews of textbooks, scholarly works related to foreign language education, dictionaries, tests, computer software, videotapes and other non-print materials will be considered for publication. Both positive and negative aspects of the work(s) being considered should be pointed out. The review should give a clear but *brief* statement of the work's contents and a *critical* assessment of contribution to the profession. Quotations should be kept short. Do not use footnotes. Reviews that are merely descriptive will not be accepted for publication.

News and Views

Manuscripts should not exceed one double-spaced page. Items related to language instruction such as reports on conferences, official trips, official visitors, special events, new instructional techniques, training aids, or materials, research findings, news items, etc., will be considered for publication.

Specifications for Manuscripts

Manuscripts should be typed on 8 1/2 x 11 inch paper, double-spaced, with margins of about 1 1/4 inch on all four sides. All pages should be numbered consecutively. Each manuscript should be submitted in three copies. The first page should include only the title

and the text. It is recommended that passages or quotations in foreign languages be glossed or summarized.

Authors are encouraged to prepare their manuscripts on the new word processors (Xerox Star) which are now available in all Schools and Directorates. When the Xerox Star is used authors should submit both a floppy disc and a hard copy (paper) of the manuscript.

All materials submitted for publication should conform to the *Publications Manual of the American Psychological Association* or to the "Guidelines for the Preparation of Manuscripts" which appears annually in the *TESOL Quarterly*.

Review Process

Each manuscript will be evaluated anonymously by at least two foreign language educators. To assure anonymity, authors should not put their name on submitted manuscripts, but should include a 3" x 5" card listing the title of the manuscript, author's name, department/division and telephone number.

Correspondence

Submit your correspondence and manuscripts to the Editors of *Dialog on Language Instruction*, ATTN: ATFL-DPL,Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006.

DIALOG ON LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION is an occasional internal publication of the Defense Language Institute and part of its professional development program. Its primary function is to promote professional dialog by increasing opportunities to share professional knowledge among DLI faculty and staff and by encouraging professional communication within the world-wide Defense Language Program. It does not necessarily represent an official position of the Defense Language Institute nor of any other element of the U.S. Department of Defense.

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